The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 12, 1895.

The Week.

A SIGNIFICANT indication of the growth of business appears in the Treasury report for August. For a long time the circulation of the national banks has shown little increase, but last month it appears to have been enlarged by nearly $1,500,000. This indicates an increased demand for currency, and it is also worth notice that the new notes are secured by the deposit of new 4 per cent. bonds. At the price paid for these bonds, the profit of issuing banknotes is so small that very few will be issued except in response to the actual demands of trade. The continued large receipts of revenue point in the same direction. The present month opens with receipts at the rate of nearly $1,000,000 a day; which has been about the average since the 1st of July. If we were to adopt the methods of some protectionist journals, and compare the month of August, 1895, with August, 1894, the last month in which the McKinley tariff was in force, we might demonstrate that the present tariff was very productive of revenue, for the receipts from customs this August were $3,800,000 more than last. Upon examination, however, it appears that this increase was almost wholly due to the duty on sugar, which produced last month about $3,000,000. This will be a much larger item of revenue the present year than the year before, and will go far of itself to extinguish the deficit. On the other hand, the continued small receipts from the excise on distilled liquors properly arouse grave apprehensions. These receipts are much below what was obtained when the tax was ninety cents a gallon, and by this time the extra supply forced on the market last summer in order to escape the increased tax should have been absorbed. But the price of spirits has fallen, and now stands at a figure which suggests the existence of illicit production.

The very great advance in the price of cotton, which has already amounted to 50 per cent. on last year's figures, and may go considerably further, ought to suggest to the Southern farmers that free-silver coinage may not be the only means of raising prices. Without very profound reflection they can now see that as the high prices of this year are explained by a partial failure of the cotton crop, so the low prices of last year admit of other explanation than the machinations of capitalists. The cotton-worm appears to be considerably more potent than the gold-bug, and the Southern farmers will accomplish much more for themselves by fighting the former than the latter. Nor can the reduction in the amount of cotton be regarded as altogether disastrous. The demand was outrun by the enormous supply of last year, and the present short crop will be supplemented by the stock carried over.

It is an encouraging sign that, in more than one Southern State, Democratic candidates for the United States Senate are announcing that they will make their canvass on a sound-money platform, and that the indications favor their success. One recent illustration of this was the excellent open letter in which Gov. O'Ferrall of Virginia made a clear and cogent argument against free coinage as the basis of his appeal for popular support in his ambition to succeed Senator Daniel. The term of Senator Pugh of Alabama is approaching its end, and Congressman Clarke of the Mobile district, who has been denounced by the silverites as "the worst gold-bug in the State," has declared himself a candidate for the succession, and is receiving warm support from a large part of the party press. Alabama is suffering sadly from old-fogyism in her senatorial representation, and it is greatly to be hoped that she will not make the mistake in Pugh's case that was committed in Morgan's, of giving a fourth term to a man who has outlived his capacity for usefulness.

New possibilities in the way of export trade are constantly presenting themselves, making prominent a side of the tariff question which protectionists generally ignore. The latest step reported in this direction is the exportation of Lake Champlain iron ore to Germany. A furnace in that country which had been using a native ore made the experiment of substituting ore from Lake Champlain, and found that, in spite of the higher cost of the American ore, it could be used with so much economy of coke as to decrease the cost of pig iron. It is said that the furnaces on the Rhine can show even better results, owing to cheaper freights. This example demonstrates the folly of the import duties on iron ore which the protectionist Senators forced into the tariff bill. There are many varieties of iron ore, some of which it is evident we can export and some of which we need to import. The manufacture of iron can be prosecuted to the greatest advantage by taking advantage of these diversities, and nowhere is the policy of relieving raw materials of taxation more beneficial.

The Philadelphia *Manufacturer* is suffering acute mental distress over the course that is likely to be taken by the Republican party concerning protection and bimetallism. In the first place it fears that the platform recently adopted by the Pennsylvania Republicans was the "perpetration of a premeditated fraud." Instead of saying "we demand the use of both gold and silver as *standard* money," this platform said "we demand the use of both gold and silver money." This change in language was made at the instance of the gold-bugs, and was "in harmony with the other methods employed to bolster up a cause which is based upon delusion, quackery, and lies; which fears free discussion in the press; which procured the demonetization of silver by means which no man at this day can explain," and so on. As there is a disposition among some Republicans to suppress the silver issue, so there is a desire to keep quiet about the tariff. This the *Manufacturer* fiercely declares will not be tolerated. If the tariff is not going to be the issue next year, it wants to know what will be the issue. If both parties agree to drop both the tariff and silver, we should have "a love-feast, instead of campaign." Nothing of the kind shall take place if the *Manufacturer* has anything to say about it. Instead of that it promises "a tremendous row of a most complicated character." The Eastern Republicans want higher duties and do not care about silver. The Western Republicans want silver and do not care for higher duties. If the Eastern Republicans will not consent to favor silver, then the Western Republicans will join the free-silver Democrats. In that case the Eastern Republicans "will have the pleasure of joining hands with the worst enemies of protection in the East, or of going alone." That is the alternative that confronts the protectionists of this part of the country.

It must be said that there is a great deal of truth in these observations. The situation which they indicate is doubtless depressing from a party point of view, but it is on many other accounts extremely hopeful. It suggests the possibility of the breaking up and the rearranging of parties. If it is true, as the *Manufacturer* asserts, that the gold monometallists of the Republican party are already in full fellowship with the Reform Club of New York, "the most venomous nest of free-traders in the country," why is it not better that they should be allowed to stay there? If it is true that "British free trade" and the "British gold system" are both hostile to American interests, the believers in the latter system ought not to be allowed in the protectionist camp. If it is true that the fate of the protective-tariff system is "bound up with that of bimetallism," it is time for Republicans to make up their minds which issue is more important. Conservative Republicans were driven to support the Sherman bill to placate the bimetallists,

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and they are now warned that they must do the same thing again. With the consequences of their former concession fresh in the memory of the country, it is not very probable that the experiment will be repeated, and if the ultra-protection and silver element demand it, there may indeed be a "tremendous row"; and the more violent it is, the better it will be for the cause of good government.

Conventions of Republican League clubs continue to lend a spice of humor to our politics. The national gathering at Cleveland a few weeks ago amused the country by devising an original method for "dodging" the burning issue of silver, by the sudden discovery that it had no right to make any platform, and never had possessed any right to do so during all the years that conventions had been adopting resolutions, because the constitution had always provided that the League "shall not in any manner endeavor to influence the action of any national, State, county or municipal convention"! The League clubs of New York State met at Binghamton last week, and the delegates, according to the *Tribune's* report, talked about the Sunday-saloon question, "to the exclusion of almost every topic"; but when it came to taking a position on this issue, they contented themselves with commending the action of the police authorities in enforcing the law in this city, declaring that "the question of open saloons on Sunday is not a political question, but is one the determination of which will, to a large extent, measure the moral tone of the Empire State," and gravely making this announcement: "We believe in the American Sunday, and that the traditions of the Republican party favor the preservation of all those conditions and principles calculated to bring peace, prosperity, and happiness to the masses of the people."

Ingalls has announced his candidacy for the United States senatorship which is to be filled by the next Kansas Legislature, and comes out in favor of the election of President and Vice-President, as well as of Senators, by the people. The idea of popular election of Senators is supposed by aspiring politicians to be popular with the masses, particularly in the West and South; and Ingalls probably reasons that the further he pushes the principle, the stronger will his candidacy be. But there is one objection to the direct choice of the executive which must be conclusive with thoughtful people, all other considerations, pro or con, left out of the account. This is the fact that with such a system the nation might be kept for weeks in uncertainty as to who had been elected President. In 1884, for example, the popular vote was divided almost evenly between Cleveland and Blaine; the Democratic candidate receiving 4,874,986 and the Republican 4,851,981. But it was not until the official vote of Texas was canvassed, nearly a month after the election, that anybody knew which candidate would finally come out ahead. In 1880 the margin was still narrower, Garfield's plurality over Hancock being only 9,464; and in that year also the question which candidate was ahead on the popular vote remained open for weeks while the returns from the immense and in large parts thinly settled State of Texas were being gathered and compiled. For the whole country to wait perhaps a month in order to find out which nominee got a few more ballots than the other, is not to be thought of.

The Democrats of more than one State will probably have to go through the clarifying process which the party is undergoing in Nebraska. Where the remedy is needed it is a most excellent one to apply. In 1893, Nebraska Democrats adopted a thoroughly sound-money platform. Last year, led away by an offer of Populist support, they swung themselves clear over into the Populist ranks and demanded silver and paper *ad libitum*. As a result, the free-silver wing of the party has deemed itself strong enough to go alone this year, and has adopted a platform of the Populist model. The sound-money Democrats have taken up the gage of battle, and their separate convention, held on Thursday, cannot fail to result in practical good to the sound-money cause, even beyond the boundaries of the State. Its platform not only declares against free coinage of silver, but speaks out boldly in favor of the gold standard, saying:

> "We declare ourselves unequivocally and unreservedly for that metallic money as the standard unit the bullion and mint value of which are approximately the same, the purchasing power of which, regardless of Government mintage, is the least fluctuating in all the markets of the civilized world."

Conventions, even when dominated by anti-silver men, are so apt to think it necessary to say something about the use of silver-through-international-agreement, etc., etc., that it is encouraging to find these Western men avowing plainly what is an evident financial truth. The educating effect of such a convention and platform can hardly be overestimated.

The results of the examination of Tammany candidates for election inspectors are calculated to make every true Boy in the old hall say with one of the victims who was caught cheating in the preparation of his papers, "Tell with reform and reformers!" Out of 2,397 persons examined, 460, or nearly one-fifth, were found to be unfit. No less than 358 others failed to appear for examination, and 12 others resigned, making 370 more who were undoubtedly unfit and realized that they would be found to be so on investigation. As the whole number notified to appear was 2,782, it has thus been shown that 830 of them were unfit; or more than a fourth of the whole. The city has thus been spared the services of these men, and will get in their places men who are competent for the performance of their duties. This is the result of the examination of the candidates of only one party. A like number of Republican candidates have since undergone the same examination, with a like result. Nothing more valuable in the way of securing honest elections has happened in the city for a long time, and for this we have to thank the Police Board.

The first of this year's international yacht races (the second was vitiated by a foul) seems to have convinced nearly everybody that Valkyrie III. has little more chance of taking the America's cup away from us than her predecessors had. Undoubtedly the widespread and uproarious enthusiasm over Defender's first victory, exceeding anything of the kind over former victories, is due to the fact that more anxiety was felt about the result this year than in any previous match. It seems to be demonstrated that the Herreshoffs are able to build a faster boat every year, no matter what the requirements may be. How long they can continue to do this no man can say, but there is cause for congratulation in the quite general agreement that whatever advance is made in future will be along different lines. Both English and American authorities are agreed in thinking that the present type of racing-machine has reached its limit, and that the racers of the future should be smaller, and constructed on models which will fit them for some other use than racing. It cannot be said that the present competition is of any value in scientific yacht construction, for the boats are practically worthless for anything except racing. If we can get construction upon more practical lines, it will be a decided gain.

There has been some complaint in this country about the slowness of the Chinese authorities in making reparation for the outrages committed upon Americans by mobs in that country. But Mr. John W. Foster points out that the Oriental Government has been most prompt in comparison with the action of our own Government under similar circumstances. Although only a few weeks have elapsed since the Kucheng massacre, nearly a score of participants have already been condemned to death, more than a hundred others are in prison awaiting trial, and the Government is arranging to compensate the missions for all their losses. On the other hand, no punishment whatever was ever inflicted upon the white men guilty of the atrocious outrages upon the Chinese committed at Rock Springs, Wyoming, a few years ago, and compensation was delayed for three years, and then accompanied by legislation against the Chinese, which was pronounced by our Supreme Court in violation of treaty, although without remedy. No wonder Mr. Foster thinks that, in view of such facts,

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"we in America should be chary of our condemnation."

The English Parliament was prorogued on Thursday after having been held strictly to the programme of doing nothing in this session but voting supply. On no other question has the Government committed itself, and Mr. Balfour the other day refused to commit it to any policy whatever, even for the next session. This *non-possumus* attitude has been pretty hard for some of the Cabinet to maintain—for none, perhaps, harder than for the new Secretary for India, Lord George Hamilton. Only last February, when in Opposition, he spoke and voted for the immediate repeal of the Indian cotton duties, which had caused such an outcry in Lancashire, on the ground that they were protective. It is alleged, and probably with truth, that the Unionists elected several Lancashire members on the promise to repeal these duties. But Lord George has now discovered, as Indian Secretary, that nothing must be done "hastily," that there is "great difficulty" in doing anything, and that, anyhow, the Indian Government unquestionably have the power to do what they please about it. It will not appease the wrath of Lancashire to be told that Lord George remains of the opinion he held last February. An opinion which a Government retains as a pious and private article of belief, without attempting to act upon it, might as well be an opinion to the contrary, so far as the angry cotton-spinners are concerned.

Mr. Balfour's explanation of his reasons for putting a knife into international bimetallism succeeds only in giving the knife another twist. He is pained that any of his old bimetallic friends should think he had recanted—the true bimetallic faith has no stancher adherent than he. But it must remain an ideal faith, something hanging in the clouds, never to be realized on this earth. International bimetallism is utterly impossible, but Mr. Balfour is a devout believer in it. It is a new application of the old saying, *Credo quia impossibile est.* As to a conference in order to an agreement, he pours philosophic scorn upon the proposition. First agree, then confer, is the true order, he says. The faithful old bimetallists who have borne the heat and burden of the day will shake their heads over this. They have always maintained that the way to agree is to confer. All you have to do is to get together delegates of radically different views, under stringent and radically different instructions from their respective governments, have some banquets, give Jones the floor, and wind up with a grand agreement, like the witches in "Macbeth"—"Fair is foul and foul is fair"—in other words, 16 is 30 and 30 is 16. Experience is against this, it must be confessed, and now that Mr. Balfour arrays his philosophy against it too, it looks as if the international bimetallists would have to do their conferring in their private capacity. Their obvious duty now is to say that they are glad Mr. Balfour has shown himself in his true colors, and that they are well rid of him; that the situation is now cleared up; they have got the gold-bugs just where they want 'em, and now they will go ahead and have free silver without waiting for anybody on earth.

"Josephus Africanus" is the name, half grandiloquent and half sarcastic, with which Mr. Chamberlain was dubbed by the London papers when he announced his ambitious policy for the colonial development of West Africa. In his speech in the Commons on the vote of supply for the Colonial Office, and more specifically the next day, August 23, when he received a deputation on the subject of African railroads, he outlined what he called his "new policy," his "great policy." It is, in effect, that the time has come for Great Britain vigorously to take hold of her "great estate" and develop it. The people of England must put into the colonies "some of their superfluous wealth," or there is "no future for those countries." It is ridiculous to wait longer for private initiative and capital to build railroads and open up trade in Africa. The hour has struck for imperial grants in aid of African railroads, and, in general, for "imperial assistance" in developing the colonies. Mr. Chamberlain eloquently assured the Commons that nothing was more "extraordinary to his mind than the extraordinary growth of trade in those West African colonies." But the *Economist* cruelly produces figures which show that there has been "no appreciable growth" at all, and, moreover, that "the trade is confined to a comparatively small range of products." Beginning with such a cold dash of facts, this expert rather contemptuously defers criticism of Mr. Chamberlain's general policy to a more convenient season.

The Trade-Union Congress in England opened with a substantial victory for the conservative element. For a number of years a set of socialistic agitators have been trying to induce the trade-unions to endorse their theories, and last year they succeeded in getting the congress to pass a resolution in favor of the "nationalization" of land and capital. This resolution was very far from expressing the real convictions of the members of the unions, and the oldest and best-managed of these organizations determined to rid themselves of the control of the radicals. This they appear now to have accomplished, by securing the adoption of two new rules. One of these simply provides that no person who does not follow a trade shall be admitted as a delegate to the congress as a representative of the union of that trade. The effect of this is to exclude a number of agitators whose labors are oral rather than manual. Mr. John Burns and other representatives of "labor" in Parliament will hereafter be unable to appear as so accredited by the trade-unions, and their congresses will now be directed by business men and not by half-crazy theorists. The second rule is directed against the "trade-councils," which are not properly trade-unions, but are composed of members elected by the unions. These bodies have gone actively into politics and are responsible for many of the schemes of "municipal socialism" which have been attempted in England. It appears that the socialistic element was defeated by a vote of two to one, and the result is extremely creditable to the good sense of English workingmen. Their trade-unions have for many years been increasing in wisdom and in favor, discouraging strikes and devoting themselves to improving the condition of their numbers. The action of the congress last year was therefore highly discouraging to those who have the true interests of workingmen at heart, and the course now adopted is correspondingly cheering.

A very notable illustration of what is possible in the way of improved relations between workmen and their masters has been afforded recently in the iron trade in England. Owing to a number of causes, the prices obtained for the manufactures of iron of late have been very low, and at the same time the demand has fallen off. Hence, it became necessary to reduce wages, and instead of engaging in a ruinous strike the men faced the situation with intelligence and good feeling. Since it was believed that foreign establishments were making gains at the expense of the English, it was decided to appoint a committee, made up of employers and men, to visit these establishments and study their methods and processes, with a view to obtaining suggestions of possible improvements. This plan was carried out, and a number of the principal establishments of Belgium and Germany were inspected. What is equally remarkable as showing the improved relations between competing employers, the foreign managers, who were informed of the purpose of the visit, received the committee with the greatest courtesy, and gave them every facility in their tour of inspection. It was reserved for some of the German newspapers to distinguish themselves by attacking the English visitors as spies, and denouncing them as having procured admission to the foreign establishments by false representations. There is little doubt that a large part of the hatred and jealousy that exist between nations is due to the lies of journalists, and this incident is a proof of it. Whether the committee obtained any ideas of practical use or not cannot yet be told, but their expedition suggests how much may be accomplished by patience and forbearance in settling trade disputes.

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THE EMPLOYMENT OF PRISONERS.

When the people of New York were called on last year to ratify or reject the amendments framed by the Constitutional Convention, they were confronted with a disagreeable alternative. On the one hand, the amendments were in the main desirable, and in some cases extremely important. On the other hand, there were some that were very objectionable. But as nearly all the amendments were submitted to be voted on in a body, it was necessary either to vote against them all, thereby opposing all reform, or to take the evil with the good. The amendment prohibiting the employment of prisoners at productive labor was a bitter dose for most people to swallow, but it seemed best to accept it, trusting to the future to bring about some remedy for the evil condition of affairs which it was sure to create. Fortunately it was provided that the amendment should not go into effect until 1897, so that this optimism was not unjustifiable.

It is not improbable that many people were deceived as to the real nature of this amendment by some rather specious features. It contained a proviso that convicts might be employed in producing articles which they could use, or which could be utilized in any of the public institutions of the State, or any of its political divisions. Here, it was doubtless argued by many, was ample opportunity for the employment of convicts without bringing them into competition with private industries. Mr. Eugene Smith, in a paper read last week before the Social Science Association at Saratoga, exposes the utter fallacy of this argument. He shows that there is no public work for the State of any importance except that which is farmed out to contractors. The Constitution requires that all contracts for work or materials on the canals shall be made with the lowest bidder therefor, and the same requirement exists by statute in the case of repairs to armories and arsenals, in the purchase of arms, uniforms, and equipment for the national guard, in the printing and binding of public documents, and practically in all the departments of public work. The system of having such work done by competitive contract is generally regarded as necessary for the repression of jobbery, and it is highly improbable that any support could be obtained for a measure which should replace this system with one of convict labor. It is enough to suggest what would happen if the State printing, for example, were taken out of the hands of the Printers' Union and carried on in the penitentiaries. The eleemosynary institutions of the State now manufacture their own supplies to a large extent, and do not require the assistance of convicts. Mr. Smith does not hesitate to say that the total amount of public work which is practically available under this section of the Constitution will not be sufficient to give employment to one per cent. of the prisoners. The superintendent of State prisons estimates that fifty convicts could do it all.

If any one supposes that these estimates are merely conjectural, he need only refer to some of our previous experience to convince himself of their accuracy. It so happens that only six years ago what was known as the Yates law was enacted—a statute which was practically identical with the present constitutional provision. Under that law the prison workshops were closed, and the prisoners had to be shut up in their cells in idleness. Almost immediately the most piteous appeals for employment began to be heard. Prisoners begged for work of any kind, no matter how hard or how menial, and declared that confinement in idleness was slow death. In fact, while this law was in force, the death-rate in the prisons rose to the highest figure ever known, and there was a marked increase of insanity. In its financial results the law was equally disastrous. For six years prior to 1887 the State prisons had more than paid their expenses. The Yates law produced a deficit of $150,000 in 1888, although it did not go into effect until August, and in the following year the deficit was $370,000, although the law was repealed in June. Thus, in about ten months this piece of "labor" legislation wasted about half a million of the money produced by the labor of the people, and there is no reason to suppose that higher wages were obtained in a single trade through the suppression of prison competition.

It is hardly necessary to add that such a system of dealing with prisoners as this is utterly opposed to the conclusions of all those who have devoted themselves to prison science. These conclusions are no longer theoretical, but have been confirmed by experience. It is established positively that it is merciful and wise and just for the State to subject criminals to reformatory influences, and that when so subjected nearly four-fifths of them can be reformed. But in this reformatory process an essential agency is useful labor. The prisoner must be taught to work, and to work at industries which will afford him support when he is discharged. The constitutional amendment just adopted, therefore, sounds the knell of prison reform in this State. It means financial loss to the people, disease and demoralization to the prisoners, and discouragement to the benevolent.

The situation, however, is more hopeful than is commonly known. The last Legislature was not a body that deserved much gratitude from the public; but it must be reckoned to its credit that it passed a resolution providing that another prison amendment shall be offered to the people. The amendment now proposed, which was prepared by the Prison Association, prohibits contract labor, and directs that prisoners shall be employed, so far as practicable, in public work, but does not prohibit the sale of the products of their labor. Under this amendment the prisoners can be instructed and employed, and the prisons be made self-supporting. No one doubts what the verdict of the people on this amendment will be, if they get a chance to vote on it. The trade-union vote, although a dreadful bogy to politicians, never amounts to much in the election returns. The important point is to induce the next Legislature to allow the people to have a chance to vote on the question; and those who wish to do what they can to lessen crime and to reform criminals may properly direct their efforts to this end.

THE CANAL MANIA.

The success of the Suez Canal has had an extraordinary number of unexpected consequences. Before the passage to India around the Cape of Good Hope was discovered, all Oriental trade, as Bagehot has said, centred in the Mediterranean region, and was thence diffused through Europe. After that discovery the Mediterranean ports lost their commerce, and the trade between India and Europe fell into the hands of the Dutch and the English. Every one predicted that the digging of a canal through the Isthmus of Suez would be a very bad thing, so far as the English monopoly was concerned, for the East-Indian traffic. It was expected that it would restore prosperity to the ports of Southern Europe at the expense of London and Liverpool. So astute an observer as Tocqueville was deceived, and declared to Senior that it would be the Greeks, the Styrians, the Dalmatians, the Italians, and the Sicilians who would use the Canal, if anybody used it. Hence the English would have nothing to do with the enterprise, and would have prevented it if they could. But they could not, and they presently found to their astonishment not only that the Canal was a success, but also that they were almost the only people using it. The merchandise of India once more came to the Mediterranean Sea, but not to the Mediterranean ports. Instead of going to Venice and Genoa for European distribution, it went to England as it did before, and her enemies had the mortification of seeing a scheme which it was thought would end her commercial supremacy inure almost to her sole benefit.

This unexpected success had the result of making it impossible to consider seriously the schemes for other canals which were at once brought forward by enthusiastic projectors. Whoever attempted to criticise these schemes was silenced by the argument that financial prophecy was proved worthless by the example of Suez. Every one said that that would be a failure; and gave good reasons why it should be. As a matter of fact it proved a success, and so it might turn out with the Isthmus of Panama. Hence De Lesseps found little difficulty in raising enormous sums of money for this enterprise by vo-

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luntary subscription. His appalling failure ought to be a warning to sober-minded people that the mistaken predictions in regard to the Suez Canal did not dispense with the necessity of foresight and calculation in such enterprises. Probably it will for a long time be difficult to enlist private capital in these vast and uncertain schemes, but it is different with governments. Legislators are invariably lavish of the money of their constituents, in spite of the fact that their lavishness is almost invariably unproductive. Nothing but the embarrassment of the Treasury of this country will prevent Congress from listening to suggestions for donating a hundred millions, more or less, to the projectors of the Nicaragua Canal, on the chance of its being repaid out of future profits. And within a few days it has actually been proposed by one of our metropolitan journals that $200,000,000 be expended in digging a channel which will enable ocean steamers to carry their cargoes past this city to the lakes without breaking bulk.

This is certainly an extraordinary proposal to emanate from the city of New York. It may recommend itself to the people of Chicago and Duluth, but it would be carrying altruism to an extreme for the inhabitants of this city to expend large sums to enable the craft that now swarm in their docks to sail by without touching. The ship canal that connects Manchester with the sea was not suggested by Liverpool, and the merchants of Liverpool would probably have questioned the sanity of one of their number who should have suggested that they ought to contribute to the expense of its construction. Such a proposal, however, is only an illustration of the entrancing speculations that are constantly dangled before the eyes of legislators. These are always influenced by national jealousy, and when they are told that if we do not spend our money in digging a canal through Nicaragua other people will, the appeal is irresistible. The very vastness of these schemes makes them attractive: the bigger they are, the more suitable for a great people. What Yankee could calmly behold a petty state like Canada constructing at its own expense a system of ship canals that should furnish cheap transportation for our commerce? Such a spectacle would drive a high-spirited Congressman wild, and, rather than witness it, he would vote to turn all the waters of the St. Lawrence into the Hudson and the Mississippi.

But if we inquire concerning the success of canal enterprises, we shall find much reason for caution. It is hard to name any considerable canal except that of Suez that is profitable. It is unnecessary to refer to the awful loss of life and property at Panama. The folly displayed there was too stupendous to be repeated. But the Manchester Canal is in its way equally portentous. That city should be governed by sagacious men, but it is probable that they have saddled it with a permanent incubus. It has been found that the Canal has benefited Liverpool; because that city has secured lower rates by rail; but Manchester has so far only secured higher rates of taxation. The Canal has cost $75,000,000, and the net receipts last year were possibly $125,000. They may perhaps exceed this hereafter, but the enterprise is hopelessly bankrupt, and the city of Manchester is obliged to raise the interest on the money it has sunk by a severe increase in taxation. The North Sea Canal, which has just been completed, may be justified as a naval necessity, but it is hardly probable that it can be a commercial success. The Corinth Canal, it is reported, does not earn enough to pay for its dredging. Our own Erie Canal, although indirectly profitable, has, owing to our corrupt Legislature, been a steady drain on the resources of the State. All these examples should teach caution; but we apprehend that they will be appealed to in vain. There is now fresh talk of a ship canal from the Bay of Biscay to the Mediterranean, of a great canal from the Mediterranean into the interior of Africa, of a canal at the mouth of the Rhone, of a canal to connect Berlin with the North Sea, and of we know not what others. We have on hand the deepening of the Erie Canal, and the Hennepin Canal, with several others in prospect. The most formidable of these is doubtless the Nicaragua Canal, and it is significant of what is to come that the cost of this, which was first put at $50,000,000, then at $65,000,000, and afterwards at $70,000,000 to $90,000,000, is by the latest estimates to be $110,000,000. But estimates in such matters are notoriously delusive.

THE LEADER OF A DEMOCRACY.

Discussion among the English Liberals of the question who is to lead their party in the future has already begun, and will doubtless grow sharper in the parliamentary vacation. The National Liberal Federation, which is perhaps the nearest thing to our nominating and platform-making conventions that the English parties have, will meet before Parliament reassembles in November, and the question of party leadership cannot be kept out of the debates. There is no denying that Lord Rosebery has failed as a Liberal leader. It is not that he was disastrously beaten in the elections. It was clear that he was a failure before he was beaten. Had he won, his unfitness permanently to be the head of a great democratic and reforming party would have remained conspicuous. It is not that he is a peer. It is not that he is a horse-racer. Both those facts have been and would be a handicap to him, to borrow a metaphor from his favorite sport, but he might have carried the extra weight had he possessed the prime qualities requisite in the leader of a democracy.

One of these qualities is seriousness. No great democratic leader was ever an habitual jester. If seriousness can rise, on occasion, to solemnity, to high moral earnestness and enthusiasm, so much the better. But a character without a solid basis of seriousness is not a character which a democracy will ever make an ideal of, or accept as satisfactory in its chosen leader. Now, Lord Rosebery is not serious, or, if he is, he does not make men believe that he is, which is practically the same thing. One need not go for proof beyond his House of Lords speech on August 15. It was a clever speech, as almost everything that Rosebery does is clever, but it was essentially a flippant speech. He made a lot of jokes, and some of them were very good ones. He praised the House of Lords as "a sort of political Thebaïs—a region of holy hermits, separated from all the vain tumults of the world, absorbed in our own silent and solitary meditations." Of Lord Ampthill's father, he said that he explained his assiduous attendance upon the House of Lords, though never speaking, on the ground that he found it "a pleasing opportunity for repose." "Laughter" followed these sallies, and "much laughter" followed Lord Rosebery's dismissal of the Duke of Argyll's charge that the conduct of the late Government was "infamous," by saying that this was "very strong language, even for a honeymoon"—the noble Duke having lately married for the third time.

All this excellent fooling set the Lords in a roar, but what did they do, one wonders, when Rosebery pulled a long face and began to speak solemnly of the late massacres in China and the Armenian "atrocities which have horrified the conscience of Europe"? They yawned, we should suppose, or went to sleep, or, if they had themselves any appreciable share of the conscience of Europe, were disgusted at this introduction of atrocities between jests. Under the circumstances, the jests were themselves the greatest atrocity. Imagine Mr. Gladstone speaking on the same subject! But we do not need to leave it to the imagination; turn to Mr. Gladstone's Chester speech on Armenia, and note the moral elevation, the hot indignation, the high note of personal intensity and authority, and you get some idea of why one orator is fitted to be a great popular leader, and why the other is fatally disqualified by levity. Mr. Gladstone is not without wit, but his wit usually takes the form of cutting sarcasm, and thus but adds to the total impression of immense earnestness which all his oratory and his public utterances are designed to produce and do produce; his enemies themselves being witnesses.

Wit and literary skill are no drawback in a democratic leader if he uses them discreetly, but seriousness without them is better than they are without seriousness. Even if the earnestness becomes ponderous and awkward in expression, a democracy will put up with it with better grace than with the absence of it. A

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witty man said of President Cleveland, "He is the greatest master of platitude since Washington." There was truth as well as wit in the observation. Practised writers who find Mr. Cleveland's style heavy and dull, and who could never bring themselves to utter so many commonplaces so solemnly, are continually amazed and at fault in regard to his great popular influence. "The man writes like a schoolboy," they say, "yet the masses like him and believe in him." If they do, it is because they find him dead in earnest. They do not make nice distinctions about style. For their part they rather like platitudes—certainly like them better in their leaders than they do too clever a wit. A joker is all very well on the stump, but for the actual business of government give them a serious man every time. How could it be otherwise? Democracy takes itself most seriously, and will have serious men to represent it and transact its affairs. An absolute monarch would not put up for a day with a smirking Prime Minister; and we may be sure that democracy is fully as exigent, and will insist upon its leaders taking it as seriously as it takes itself.

The only other quality requisite in a democratic leader which we will now mention, and in which Lord Rosebery is notably deficient, is the quality of courage, or authority. Demagogues blunder sadly at this point. They think a democracy must be fooled to the top of its bent, never bluntly told what it ought to do. They watch anxiously for indications of the popular will, never dare try to shape that will. But democracy, taken in the large sense, is not built that way. It likes a man who will stand boldly up with clear and firm convictions; not one who lies with his ear to the ground. Democracy is not, as so many rashly say, intolerant of personal distinction, of strength, of authority. It worships them, worships them devoutly, even when it has set up idols of its own in place of the real thing. Mr. Cleveland's blunt courage has done as much for him as his obvious earnestness. Mr. Gladstone has always had the note of command about him. Even the Tories now admit that it was nothing but his magical personal influence which made the last House of Commons a home-rule House.

But Rosebery has little of this bold outspokenness. He tentatively puts out a phrase, like his famous one about the "predominant partner," and then scuttles away from it. He cries out "Down with the Lords!" but, if they won't down, says it is just as well. He turns again and again to his party and the country and beseechingly exclaims, "Do tell me, in heaven's name, what you want me to do." A man thus feebly looking about for a popular mandate is not the man to be a popular leader. The true popular leader gives his mandates, does not take them. He has to do it at the right time, with some tact, with a certain political instinct which is almost prophetic in its nature, but he does it. Lord Farrer, in his recent speech before the Cobden Club, quoted an unpublished remark of John Bright's which is very much in point, and which may aptly enough sum up the whole discussion about the nature of democracy and the stuff of which democratic leaders are made. It was this:

"The people are, on the whole, a very good people. They have now got the power in their own hands, and if those whose business it is to lead and advise them will speak the truth to them, all will go well, and if they do not, God help them both."

THE BOOMING OF BOOKS.

THE London *Times* is publishing a series of articles on "Literature in America" from a contributor the veil of whose anonymity we will not impertinently lift. He has evidently been in this country, and has as evidently "got up" his subject under experienced tutors. It would be easy to point out here and there a mistake in fact, and oftener in judgment, but on the whole he is accurate and sane. Discussing the chances of English authors in the American book-market, he observes:

"Curiosity may be felt as to what constitutes the foundation of an English author's success in America. The reply is that he must be 'boomed'—that is to say, his books must have become the rage in London, and the press must be unanimous in his praise. Nothing but a boom here will induce the American publisher to take the trouble of booming him there. 'Get the English papers to rave about an author and he will surely make way here,' said an eminent New York publisher. There are very few literary journals in the United States, so that ours have remarkable influence, and their verdict on a new work is eagerly scanned and, as a rule, accepted."

Objections to this statement will instantly occur to every reader. Indeed, the writer himself is dimly aware that something is wrong with it, as he has immediately to confess that the 'Trilby' boom was spontaneous and indigenous in this country, and he also innocently wonders why it is that popular English authors like Mr. Frankfort Moore, Miss Cholmondeley, and Mrs. F. A. Steele, have "failed to capture the American public." We fear, also, that his American tutors ought to be rapped over the knuckles for allowing him to suppose that the verdicts of English literary journals are "eagerly scanned" in the United States for the purpose of saying ditto to Mr. Burke. But in his main contention he has undoubtedly hit upon a great truth. The great book successes among us go not always by merit, not by favor necessarily, but in all cases, with or without merit or favor, in large part by booming. Not all boomed books are successful, but all successful books are boomed. Into the philosophy and the methods of this booming, however, the *Times* writer has not seen, or, at any rate gone, very deeply.

There remains a great deal that is mysterious about it, when all is said. The most artful booming often refuses to work, and, on the other hand, a publisher who has in vain squandered money on preliminary puffing has many times the mortification of seeing a rival's book suddenly begin to sell by the thousand without any foregoing dark hints at all. Hence comes the frequent confession of those who have given a life to the business, that a great literary success is of the nature of a lottery. Go to the shelves blindfold, and the book you pick out by chance is as likely to be in huge demand as the one you exercise your best judgment upon. But this really puts us upon the track of the true solution of the problem. If the booming of books were purely a literary phenomenon, then the literary judgment would not so often be at fault about it. But it is not primarily or chiefly a literary phenomenon. It is a social phenomenon. The literary element is secondary, often disappears altogether. A book may boom as furiously as a fashion in dress may ravage, without there being, in the one case, a sound literary reason, any more than there is, in the other, a sound æsthetic or hygienic reason. There is something essentially unreasoning, if not irrational, about it, as there is about many other social phenomena. A panic sweeps through a nation, laughter ripples through a theatre, or wailing surges through a camp-meeting, and why the feeling leaps from mind to mind in the way it does it is almost impossible to say. We cannot do much more than accept the ultimate fact; neither can we in the case of a book which wins a great social, often falsely called a great literary, success.

It is to be said for the shrewder and less scrupulous publishers and critics that they begin to have a glimmering of this important truth. We see evidence of this in the kind of puffs preliminary that the first now desire and the second furnish. "I predict that this book will be much talked about." "This volume is destined to make a great sensation." That is the kind of profound criticism which certain advertisers most eagerly employ. What matters it if the predicter is a person who delights in parading her own silliness, and the prediction is printed in a paper that you would not let your daughter touch with a pair of tongs? The thing is, to give the impression that the book is certain to be chattered over at afternoon teas and buzzed about at evening receptions. That impression once firmly established, the boom is on. The great principle involved, the great principle for critics to seize, is that books are not meant to be read, enjoyed, meditated over, but to be *talked about*. In other words, the thing to aim at is a social success—to make a book as much *de règle* as evening dress, and ignorance of it as horrible a thing as appearing in public without balloon sleeves.

We hope this will not seem a low view of literature to take. Did not Macaulay hope to see his 'History of England' upon every lady's dressing-table? A plain novelist, we should think, might

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well be content to fill up the blanks in conversation between sips of sherbet. For our part, it is not the authors that we pity, but the unfortunate slaves of fashion who are compelled to read them so as to keep up a decent appearance in society. Terrible sufferings on this score have been brought to our notice—worse than anything tight lacing or high-heeled slippers ever caused. Young ladies whose natural allowance of books would be about two *per* existence, are often compelled to read as many as three or four novels in a single summer, merely as a result of social tyranny. Gloomy men have been observed to shut themselves up for a whole evening with books over which they pish and pshaw incessantly, and, when asked why they read what they find so inane or repellent, have sternly replied: "I've got to. Everybody's talking about the thing. My wife made me promise to read it." Such burdens does Fashion lay upon her votaries. Time was when a skilful man could parry the question, "Have you read 'The Unseen Woman'?" He could say he had heard of it, but had not yet had time to read it; that he had read an able review of it; that he had read last year's dead favorite; that he had read other things, and would like to talk about them. But the fair questioner cannot any longer be put off in that manner. You have to be able to tell her that you have read it, that you think chapter xxiii. particularly fine, and consider the situation on p. 193 a little morbid, or else you are a lost man socially. Clearly, book notices must soon be exiled from the literary columns and find their true home under "Society Events."

ALASKA REVISITED—V.

COOK'S INLET.

AUGUST, 1895.

THE magnificent sheet of water which preserves the name of Cook was, not unnaturally, supposed by him at first to be the long sought-for Northwest Passage, and his disappointment was marked by the name he gave to its shallow northeastern extreme, the Turnagain Arm of the charts. Two hundred miles in length and more than fifty miles wide at its entrance, it is one of the most interesting regions in Alaska, and yet is hardly mentioned in the literature outside of Coast Pilots and marine directories. Of late, attention has been drawn to it by an influx of placer miners and prospectors in search of the gold of which Doroshin, a Russian mining engineer, indicated the existence half a century ago. Some account of its natural features will have a certain interest, and a report on its mineral resources will probably be issued before long by the United States Geological Survey.

The western shore of the Inlet is formed by that projection of the mainland known as Aliaska Peninsula, while on the east it is bounded by the peninsula of Kenai, which separates it from the intricate system of fiords comprehended under the name of Prince William Sound. In the entrance is the desolate group of rocky islets known as the Barren Islands, the favorite resort of the persecuted sea-otter and myriads of sea-fowl. The peninsular shore is more or less mountainous, while Kenai rises in low bluffs to a low and level table land, backed by large glacial lakes fed from the watershed between the Inlet and the Sound. This watershed is formed by a range of snowy mountains, but so distant as to be barely visible from the Inlet. The table-land is geologically younger than the mountains, and has long been noted for the continuous beds of Tertiary coal, sometimes passing into lignite, by which it is everywhere underlaid. The bluffs it presents are broken only by a few small rivers, the site of an important salmon-canning industry, and the water adjacent to them is shoal. Only at the southern end of the table land is the coast broken by harbors, Kachekmak Bay being one of the finest on the whole northwest coast. The peninsular shore begins at Cape Douglas, and the mountains are disposed in groups with lower areas between the groups, affording a certain number of anchorages. These groups offer some of the finest mountain scenery on the continent after the St. Elias Alps. Back of Cape Douglas rises a mass of mountains, parent of four or five glaciers, one of which is admirably proportioned, larger than the Davidson, and much more attractive from its snowy whiteness and particularly graceful curves. It reaches close to the sea, the others on the southwestern side of the *massif* being less extended and smaller. The structure of the rocks is accentuated by the disappearance of the snow, except from the ravines and hollows, while on the northeastern slope the dazzling whiteness of the snowy covering is hardly disturbed in any part. The mountains are of the Fairweather type, and the whole group gives a profound impression of stern repose.

Northward the land subsides to plains behind Kamishak Bay, noted for its shoals and the many caribou which range over the grass-lands near it. Off this depression the volcano island of St. Augustine rises in symmetrical grandeur. A few years ago this island possessed an excellent harbor for small craft and was the resort of native hunters. A violent eruption closed the entrance to the harbor, which is now a placid lagoon dotted with enormous volcanic blocks; ashes were carried by the wind for more than one hundred miles, the fish in the sea adjacent were cooked alive, and the inhabitants of the whole inlet were terror-stricken by tidal waves. At present, slender clouds of steam serve as a barometer for the otter-hunter, who, when they ascend undisturbed by the upper currents, mushroom-like, puts out to sea in his frail kayak, confident of two or three days of calm.

Proceeding northward along the western shore, the next group of mountains is that clustered around the volcano Iliamna. This is less concentrated than that near Cape Douglas, and, on a near view, is much more extended, broken, and confused. It is only at a distance of thirty or forty miles that the majestic cone of the volcano disengages itself from its accessories and stands revealed in all its beauty. It sends out five or six parallel columns of steam, and seems peaceful enough, but a few years ago it was active and sent out such a profusion of hot ashes that hundreds of square miles on the Kenai table-land are covered with dead spruce-trees killed by their excessive load of powdered pumice. Still further to the north a similar mass of mountains groups itself around the Redoubt Volcano, so named because opposite the ancient Russian redoubt at Kenai River. A fourth group, apparently without a volcanic nucleus, rises inland from the cape named by Cook the North Foreland, and far to the north the series is completed by Sushitna Mountain, a single low but massive peak near the river of the same name, draining from the continent. The North Foreland *massif* is especially remarkable for its fine and severe outlines.

The middle of the Inlet is marked by a series of low islands and extensive rocky shoals, a hundred miles in length, and its northern extreme turns to the eastward towards the head of Prince William Sound between high mountains. This is Turnagain Arm, into which discharge a number of small creeks and the larger Fire River from the northward, the southern shore being partly formed by the low edge of the Kenai table-land. The water is shoal and the bottom sandy. The tides throughout the Inlet are remarkable for their range and strength. Vessels usually anchor for a favorable flood or ebb, finding it impracticable to make way against a head tide, but in the Arm they are phenomenal. The range of extreme tides is about fifty feet, and nowhere less than thirty-six feet. The ebb, carefully measured, runs from five and a half to six and a half miles an hour, slack water lasts only a few minutes, and the flood tide comes back over the sands with an angry roar, in a wave three or four feet high, running more than seven miles an hour. In ten minutes the water is six feet deep over the sands where all was dry; the least rate of current in the channel during the whole flood tide was six and a half miles. I have seen a 240-pound anchor of good Swedish iron twisted like a hank of yarn in vain efforts to hold a little tug of twenty-four tons against the tide. The magazine writers who lately went to the Bay of Fundy and vainly searched for the "bore," can be abundantly satisfied in Turnagain Arm.

The industries of the Inlet are comprised, apart from mining and prospecting, in hunting and fishing. There are a number of small, widely separated villages, each with its trader's "store," and half a dozen canneries and fisheries where salmon are salted. The United States is unrepresented by any official in the whole expanse of the Inlet. The climate is much finer than in most parts of Alaska, but the winters are colder and the winter gales severe. The mosquito is painfully evident in many places, moose and caribou abound, and the great king salmon reach enormous proportions, authentic records being accessible of single fish weighing 135 pounds. Altogether the Inlet is a place to remember, and with its volcanoes, glaciers, coal-beds, and game, is a promising locality for a summer school of geology.

W. H. D.

THE TOURIST SEASON IN SWITZERLAND.

LUGANO, August 22, 1895.

TWENTY thousand more Americans than last year have crossed the ocean to Europe this summer; so I was told by a steamship agent. I have also read somewhere that the hotel-keepers in American resorts are not all pleased with their receipts. Swiss hotels, on the other hand, have perhaps never been so crowded as this summer. At all the favorite resorts it has been quite impossible to secure rooms unless they were ordered days or even weeks in advance. This has been true not only of fashionable resorts like Interlaken, Lucerne, and St. Moritz, but of the Alpine-summit hotels as well. At Interlaken, which is simply a town of hotels strung out in two rows, I had to spend an hour before I could find quarters.

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At Lucerne we had to put up with private lodgings, and heard of a large party that had to spend the night in the railway station. At Pontresina not a room in hotel or private house could be found for love or money. At Mürren, which has two of the largest hotels in the mountains, besides several smaller ones, one of our party of three had to sleep in a little room in the shanty which serves as a post-office. A new hotel, with forty workmen still engaged on it, was already offering shelter and beds, and at one of the large hotels I was told that not a few families engage their rooms for July in May, just as we engage berths on favorite steamers three months ahead.

It would be well if American hotel-keepers were to learn a lesson from this state of affairs. If you can get comfortable rooms, excellent meals, and cheap, good wines in a Swiss mountain-top hotel to which everything has to be brought on horseback, for $2 to $3 a day, there is no reason why American hotel-keepers, who have all their supplies brought near their doors by railways, should charge twice that sum, while serving meals infinitely less satisfactory than the Swiss hotels, which, in point of cuisine, are the best in the world. My experience has been that it costs just half as much to spend a summer travelling in Europe as it does in America. This saving more than pays for the return trip on the steamer; and that is one reason, and perhaps the main one, why Americans prefer to travel abroad, and so often surprise the Europeans by their ignorance of the attractions of their own country. Our hotels are suicidally expensive. The regular rate of $4 a day, or $8 for a double room, is absurdly high; and as long as it remains so high, Americans will continue to crowd the Atlantic steamers and the European summer resorts. Will our hotel-keepers take the hint? It is true, we have plenty of cheap (and bad) hotels, but the comparison here made is between first-class hotels in the two countries. Of course, there is a difference in the cost of supplies and service, but the cost is far from being double in America.

There are, however, other reasons, besides the influx of Americans, why the Swiss hotels are so crowded this summer. Ten years ago, and even four years ago, when I visited Switzerland for the last time, there were certain attractive resorts, like the Riffel Alp at Zermatt, the Hôtel des Alpes at Mürren, the hotel on the Eggishorn, and the whole of Pontresina, that were almost monopolized by the English. This year I found all these places invaded by hosts of Germans and French, so that I not only failed to get my favorite rooms, but sometimes was glad to get any at all. The British tourists are quite disgusted at this German and French invasion, and will doubtless soon emigrate to more remote and inaccessible Alpine view-points, taking their indispensable mountain chapels and chaplains with them. The Germans have also driven from St. Moritz most of the French, who still feel so sore at having been beaten a quarter of a century ago that they refuse to live with Teutons under the same roof. What accounts for the presence of so many Germans in these (comparatively) expensive hotels, I cannot say, for the Germans have hitherto had a rather bad name among the hotel-keepers on account of their economic propensities. The only explanation I can think of is that the wonderful growth of all the large German cities during the last decade has largely increased the number of wealthy families who are able to spend a few weeks in the Alps without economizing. There is also at present a mild sort of Anglomania among the Germans and the French, which causes them to flock to places formerly monopolized by the British. Some of the young Parisian Anglomaniacs that one sees in Swiss hotels are amusing specimens of humanity.

In some of the places referred to—especially Zermatt and Mürren—the new mountain railways are largely responsible for the present overcrowding. Four years ago, in writing about these new mountain railways, I was inclined to take quite a favorable view of them, as I did not then realize that they would spoil some of my favorite spots by bringing such mobs of tourists to overcrowd the hotels. Even now, when I look at the matter unselfishly, I cannot treat these cog-wheel roads with the scorn of the veteran climbers. I find that in all cases a walk of fifteen or twenty minutes from the station restores the coveted Alpine solitude and silence, while, on the other hand, I feel that hundreds of tourists who cannot climb to these heights—especially ladies—benefit by the new means of locomotion, which, besides, does away with the former daily cruelty to burden-bearing porters and horses. It is useless to declaim against the mountain railways. They have come to stay and to multiply. At present, of all parts of Switzerland, the Bernese Oberland is best supplied with them. After the Rigi and Pilatus roads, the most popular is the one which enables you to leave Interlaken, go up to Lauterbrunnen and Mürren, down again to Lauterbrunnen, up the Wengern Alp to the Kleine Scheidegg, down to Grindelwald, and back to Interlaken—all in about eight hours—a tour which, a few years ago, would have taken two days. It is the grandest railway in the world, but it will, of course, be far surpassed in sublimity by the projected Jungfrau railway, which will raise tourists to an elevation of 13,670 feet, whereas the highest point of the Scheidegg road is only 6,788 feet. The Jungfrau railway, which, a decade ago, would have seemed a Jules-Vernean chimera, is now a certain thing and merely a question of time. The federal authorities have granted a concession for it, and its general course has already been mapped out. There will be stations on the Eiger (10,367 feet) and Mönch (11,886), while the highest point on the Jungfrau will be reached by an elevator 216 feet high. For the most part the road will traverse tunnels, and those who fear that the railway will anywhere spoil the aspect of the most beautiful mountain in Switzerland, may feel reassured on being told that, at such a height and distance, it will take a good telescope even to see the road from any accessible view-point below. Before the construction begins, however, various problems have to be solved. On July 29 and 30 there was a special session at the Scheidegg, at which it was decided to offer prizes amounting to 21,000 francs for the solution of certain electric and tunnelling problems, and a number of expert guides were sent up to the summit to investigate certain snow-problems. The engineer Imfeld (noted for his Alpine panoramas), M. Guyer-Zeller, and Prof. Koppe appear to be at the head of this stupendous undertaking.

Of other projected railways the one that will be most welcomed by tourists will connect Coire with Thusis (Via Mala), thus shortening the long, dusty, and expensive trip to the Engadine. This road, which is to be finished by next June, can hardly be called a mountain railway, as it will make a rise of only 500 feet. On the other hand, the Gorner Grat railway from Zermatt will in about an hour haul up passengers to what is in some respects the grandest tourist view-point in Switzerland, 10,290 feet above the ocean and 4,975 above Zermatt. Here you are surrounded by a complete circle of snow-peaks, including the Monte Rosa, Lyskamm, Castor and Pollux, Breithorn, Matterhorn, Weisshorn, etc.—a simply overwhelming panorama of Alpine sublimity. To my horror and indignation, I found, on reaching the top of the Gorner Grat this year, that a wretched stone hotel had been built on its very summit, utterly ruining the place and making it impossible to see more than half of the glorious view at a time. It is an almost incredible bit of vandalism, which makes one wonder what the Alpine clubs, with their thousands of members, exist for. Surely they ought not to have permitted this outrage, and surely it is their duty to see to it that, when the railway is built, the station shall not obstruct the view, and that the offensive hotel be demolished. Altogether, I do not think such a railway is at all desirable, except as far as the Riffel Hotel, for the Gorner Grat is very easily ascended even by ladies. It is different with the combined cog-wheel and ordinary railway to Zermatt from Visp. This not only shortens a long and expensive road, but makes it more fascinating than it ever was even to pedestrians, because it usually runs so closely along or over the Visp as to give one the most delightful views of that savagely turbulent stream, which suggests the lower Merced in the Yosemite. These two instances show that it is as irrational to condemn the *Zahnradbahn* unreservedly as to approve it in all cases.

I have often wondered why the Chamonix region has so far escaped the attention of the mountain-railway builders, since Chamonix continues to be the favorite resort of Americans and many others, especially the "Cookies" and other "personally conducted" parties, addicted to ease and hurry. I have often wondered, too, why Americans persist in making this their favorite resort in Switzerland. Mont Blanc is indeed the biggest and the highest of all Swiss mountains, but to me it seems the least interesting of all the giants, because it lacks individuality and distinction of form. It is a huge mass of snow and rocks without either the stern, terrific grandeur of the masculine Matterhorn, or the immaculate snowy beauty of the feminine Jungfrau. And what is most strange of all is, that the finest point of view—the Brévant—is so neglected by tourists. So few of them take the trouble to climb up this mountain, whence the rosy sunset on the snow-fields of Mont Blanc can be best observed, that no place of refuge has yet been built for their accommodation, except a small restaurant with one room and two wretched hard beds. What the tourists all do go to see is the so-called Mer de Glace, on which in reality it is foolish to waste a moment of time if one has a chance to visit the Aletsch, Gorner, or Rhone glaciers. It must be admitted, however, that none of the Swiss glaciers equal in size, beauty of color, and grandeur our own glaciers in Alaska and British Columbia.

In going from the Valaisian Alps to the Berner Oberland, tourists have hitherto had to decide between the rival claims of the Gemmi and Grimsel passes. Both are grandly desolate, and as long as both had to be traversed partly on foot or horseback they were perhaps equally popular. But since the opening, last June, of the new Grimsel road for carriages and diligence, the Grimsel has gained the ascendency; which is, perhaps, not to be regretted, since to a tourist who cannot see both these passes I should usually give the ad-

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vice to choose the Grimsel. The new carriage road over this famous old pass, which has been constructed at a cost of $312,000, is as interesting in its way as the St. Gothard railway. It passes five bridges and three tunnels, and tackles all the mountain-side problems so boldly that it is, even for pedestrians, grander than the old bridle-path; while those who like to travel at their ease in a carriage can now enjoy all the beauty and grandeur of this incomparable pass, from the precipitous slope of the Rhone glacier, with all the accompanying snow-peaks, to the desolate but beautiful lake at the Hospice, the glacier-smoothed mountain-sides, and the superb waterfalls of Handegg and Reichembach, near Meiringen.

I cannot close this letter without a brief reference to Baedeker's marvellous guide-book to Switzerland. I verily believe there is not a cow-path in the whole country that is not referred to in it; but the most praiseworthy thing about it is the conscientious way in which it is kept up to date. The current edition has apparently only a few more pages than the older one, but in reality there are many more, for the whole book has been rewritten and condensed to make room for new matter. A comparison of two editions of Baedeker impresses one strongly with the fact that, while the mountains are immutable, everything else in Switzerland undergoes as rapid changes as in America.

HENRY T. FINCK.

RENAN'S CORRESPONDENCE WITH HIS SISTER.

PARIS, August 28, 1895.

RENAN has given us the history of his earliest years in Brittany, of his life in the seminary when he was preparing for the priesthood, with such minuteness that we seem to have lived those years with him; his psychological development has been completely revealed to us. The chapter of his memoirs which describes his life at Saint-Sulpice and his relations with his clerical directors and professors, is one of the most interesting documents that can be found by those who like to study the inner life of a soul and the transition from belief to unbelief. We have more frequent occasions to study the transition from unbelief to belief, or from one religion to another. There is always in what is called a conversion a moral phenomenon which touches the deepest chords of our intellectual and moral nature. At the time when the 'Life of Jesus' appeared, Renan was attacked with the greatest violence in the Catholic press; he was treated as apostate and renegade. One day, in the presence of Monseigneur Dupanloup, the Archbishop of Orleans, somebody compared him to the Abbé Lamennais. "Take care," said Dupanloup; "Renan is not in the same category as Lamennais; he stopped at the foot of the altar"—by which he meant that Renan had never been ordained.

I have now before me some curious letters, published in the *Revue de Paris*, which refer to the period of probation and uncertainty which Renan went through before he renounced entering the church. These letters, written at Issy in 1842, are addressed to his sister, Henriette Renan, who was at that time governess in Poland in the house of Count André Zamoyski (the Zamoyskis are one of the greatest families of Poland—as great, perhaps, as the Czartoryskis). This sister, Henriette, was already known to a few by a small pamphlet of which only a hundred copies were printed in September, 1862 under the title: "Henriette Renan: Souvenirs pour ceux qui l'ont connue"; with the note, "These pages are not intended for the public." In 1883, in the preface to the 'Souvenirs d'Enfance et de Jeunesse,' Renan wrote these lines: "The person who has had the greatest influence on my life—I mean my sister Henriette—occupies here no place. In September, 1862, a year after the death of this precious friend, for the few people who had known her, a little work was dedicated to her memory. . . . My sister was so modest, she had such an aversion to the noise of the world, that she would have reproached me from the grave if I had made these pages public." In a codicil to his will, however, Renan allowed his wife to publish this small volume. He allowed also the publication of his correspondence with his sister, which is now beginning.

Henriette Renan was born July 22, 1811, at Tréguier, a place which has become now almost famous from the charming descriptions which Renan has given of it. She was twelve years older than her brother. After the death of her father (who was found dead one day on the beach), she was obliged to keep a school, but was not very successful, and, at the age of twenty-four, she left for Paris, where she accepted the situation of teacher (*sous-maîtresse*) in a small girls' school. In 1838 she sent to Tréguier for her brother, and placed him in the seminary of Saint-Nicolas, which was then under the direction of M. Dupanloup. Renan was fifteen years old. In 1841 Henriette received advantageous offers from Poland, and in 1842 she left for that distant country, where, fortunately for her, she had to remain in a most excellent and distinguished family.

Renan tells us, in his memoir on his sister, that she did not quite like the clerical turn which circumstances had given to his education. "Her religious ideas had become modified; history had taught her the insufficiency of any particular dogma. But the religious foundation which was in her a gift of nature and the result of her first education, was too solid to be shaken." As Henriette Renan, from the castle to which she was exiled, remained a constant correspondent and spiritual adviser of her brother, and as the young and gifted seminarist looked to her for advice and help in all his mental troubles, it is easy to understand what an interest their correspondence can have for those who like to witness the daily incidents of a spiritual life.

In September, 1842, Renan was hindered from spending his vacation time in Brittany by want of money. He remained in the seminary at Issy, but was quite consoled: "the situation is agreeable, the park truly delicious." He enjoyed the quietness of the place. He had just finished his year of philosophy and mathematics: "It is curious to see the revolution which these studies operate on the mind after the frivolous studies of the year of rhetoric. You make as much progress in one year as mankind has done in a century. You see things in such a different way, you recognize so many errors and prejudices where you thought that you had seen the truth, that you would be tempted to adopt a universal scepticism. Such is the first impression of the study of philosophy." While he was in this state of mind, he began to reflect more seriously on his own future. On one thing he seems to have always been determined: he was not a man of action, he desired a life of study and of intellectual work. "I think I have discovered with certainty that I was not born for what is vulgarly called the world. . . . I was not born for the small and empty things of which the world, since it must so be called, is made."

He considers closed to him any career which would not be a career of study and of meditation.

"Therefore, the question becomes simple and the choice easy; besides, the sublimity of priesthood, when it is viewed from above, has always struck me; even if Christianity were but a dream, priesthood would nevertheless be a divine type. I know that, great though it be in itself, men have made it very small, obliged, as they were, to reduce it to their level. I understand, though I consider it a prejudice, the contempt which some people have for it. It is clear that as soon as any ministry requires numerous ministers, there will be among them low and vile souls who will lower it in the eyes of those who look superficially on things and always put the man in the place of his ministry; but things must always be considered in themselves."

He felt, however, already some hesitation, and asked his sister's advice, begging her not to trouble their mother on the subject. His sister writes to him (October 30, 1842), that she shudders at the thought of the questions which occupy his mind:

"I cannot sufficiently repeat to you, my beloved Ernest, and ask you with an almost maternal tenderness: Do not let anything bind you too suddenly. Know well, before you accept them, the engagements which will seal your fate. . . . You say with truth, my Ernest, you were not born for a frivolous life. More than anybody, your sister is capable of appreciating the charm of a retired life, free, independent, laborious, useful; but where is it to be found? I think that independence is, if not impossible, at least given to a very few, and, for my part, I have never known it; yet can I hope that it will be your lot in a society which has hierarchy for its basis, and in which you justly anticipate a watchful authority? I cherish no illusion—such an authority exists in every career; but in this case is it not more fearful, since an oath obliges you to submit to it? I merely put the question; you have full liberty to answer, and the right to decide. To this question I will add another: Can a churchman entirely dispose of himself? Is he not obliged to follow the direction given by his superiors? I will not combat what you say of the elevation of his ministry; surely, if all looked upon it as you do, nothing could be greater, more worthy of a superior soul, than to consecrate life to the alleviation of misfortune, to propagate and to put in practice the sublime truths of the Gospel."

The life led by Henriette Renan was singularly quiet. She was in a "solitude of which nothing in France can give an idea: a fine château surrounded by immense forests, where one feels apart from the rest of the universe." She recommends her brother to study German philosophy.

"Germany is the classic land of tranquil dreams and of metaphysical reasonings. It will be difficult for the other nations of Europe to raise their philosophical school to the height which the German school has attained; his contemplative humor, his tranquil ways, his climate, even, have tended to develop in the North German this liberty of thought which he enjoys. Our French mind, so quick, so amiable, is generally too light for a profound philosophy."

The correspondence continues in the same mood. Renan is more and more preoccupied with doubts about the choice of a career; he shows less and less inclination to tie himself to a life of absolute obedience. He likes his clerical professors. He discusses freely with them and finds them very kind. He reads Malebranche, "the finest dreamer and the most terrible logician that ever existed." "I find in him a double joy; Malebranche was assuredly a bold thinker, and, nevertheless, he was a priest. He was, moreover, a member of a religious congregation, and he lived tranquil at a time when the secular authority and the

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spirit of the age gave to the ecclesiastical authority even more pride and power." Renan, on the whole, felt little inclination for clerical life: he might have said with Emerson:

> "I like a church, I like a cowl,
> I love a prophet of the soul,
> And on my heart monastic aisles
> Fall like sweet strains or pensive smiles;
> Yet not for all his faith can see
> Would I that cowled churchman be."

Renan left the seminary of Saint-Sulpice in 1845.

"Thanks," he says, "to the serious and liberal spirit which presided over this establishment, I had carried my philological studies very far, and my religious opinions had been much shaken by these studies. Here again my sister became my help. She had preceded me on the way; her Catholic belief had completely come to an end: but she had been careful not to influence me on this subject. When I confided to her the doubts that tormented me and made it a duty for me to abandon a career in which an absolute faith is required, she was delighted and offered to make this difficult passage easier for me. I was entering life at the age of twenty-three, old with thought, but as ignorant of the world as it is possible to be. I literally knew nobody; the smallest sum which a boy of fifteen possesses, I did not possess; I was not even a bachelor of arts."

His sister Henriette gave him the sum of fifteen hundred francs, and he tried to find in the schools of Paris an occupation which should give him board and lodging and some leisure for working. His sister had fallen ill in Poland; she returned to Paris after ten years' absence, and they lived together in a small apartment, near the Val de Grâce. They worked, they travelled together. She wrote articles in papers devoted to education. They lived there for six years, till he married Mademoiselle Scheffer.

In 1860 Renan was intrusted with a scientific mission in the East by Napoleon III. His sister joined him on his journey, and accompanied him over Syria, in the Lebanon mountains, in Palestine, in the Maronite convents. She fell ill while he was taking notes for the 'Life of Jesus,' but continued to help him in his work. Both were obliged to return to Beirut, where he fell ill himself. His sister died on the 24th of September, 1861, and he was not near her at the fatal moment.

Renan's memoir of his sister ends with a fine page, written in his best style:

"Heart in which awoke such a sweet flame of love; brain in which resided such a pure thought; charming eyes, in which goodness shone; long and delicate hand, which I so often pressed—I shudder with horror when I think that you have fallen into dust. But everything here is mere symbol and image. The truly eternal part of each of us is his relation with the Infinite. It is in the memory of God that man is immortal. There lives our Henriette, for ever radiant, for ever pure, a thousand times more really than when she struggled with her weak organs to create her spiritual person, and when, thrown into a world which could not understand her, she strove obstinately towards perfection. . . . I have never doubted the reality of a moral order; but I see now, with evidence, that all the logic of the universe would be upset if such lives were but a fallacy and an illusion."

Correspondence.

IMPROVED LEGISLATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In reading your article with the above title I am lost in amazement for the thousandth time—an amazement which is more profound the older I grow—that such men as Mr. Carter, not to speak of the hand which guides your editorial pen, do not perceive that there is one perfectly simple remedy, and only one, which will be of any avail for checking the flood of reckless legislation, and that is to put the work under executive guidance and control.

As everybody knows, in Great Britain no measure of public interest is ever taken into consideration by Parliament unless upon the proposal of the Ministry, and the most valuable function of the Ministry is that of *preventing* legislation. Why has Great Britain adhered steadily to free trade for half a century, showing no signs of wavering, while almost every other nation is getting more and more entangled in the meshes of protection? Simply because no change can be made except through the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and no Chancellor of the Exchequer can be found to propose it. Home rule for Ireland has blocked the course of legislation for the last ten years; but that is not necessarily an evil. It has allowed the business of the country to go on without the fear of revolutionary and irresponsible law-making.

Of course the reply is, and Mr. Carter would probably accept it without a murmur, that executive guidance of legislation is contrary to the American system. Yes; the American system is to allow any one of several hundred representatives to introduce as many laws as he pleases upon as many hundred subjects, without the slightest reference to history or their effect upon the public welfare, and without any criticism from anybody responsible for administration; and which or how many of these laws shall be enacted depends upon chance, the energy of the lobby, or the interest of party intrigue. Well, if this is the system which the American people decide to maintain, let us frankly admit it. Biennial sessions of the Legislature will do no good, nor any amount of care given by the people to the choice of representatives, as the Legislature will remain just as much of a mob, and its work just as chaotic then as now.

Nowhere would the change be more important than in interstate matters. If the guidance lay with the respective executives, they could confer together as to the measures to be submitted to their Legislatures, whereas there is now absolutely no means of communication except through commissions, which, even if any more competent, are wholly without the authority which would be wielded by a Governor elected by the whole people of a State.

Nowhere is the field more ripe for such agitation than in Massachusetts, and I have striven hard to induce the Democratic managers to take up the subject; but it would be about as useful to talk to the north wind, and this autumn campaign of purely State elections, with the most important question pressing for solution, will doubtless be conducted upon the tariff and the free coinage of silver.

G. B.

Boston, September 7, 1895.

EFFECT ON THE SOUTH OF THE LOW PRICE OF COTTON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Prior to the late war the tillable lands of the South were divided into large plantations. Every plantation was a little world unto itself. The smoke-house groaned with its load of hams, breakfast bacon, lard, and sidemeat. The water-mill on the creek ground the flour and meal. The sorghum-field furnished the molasses, while the cribs were overflowing with corn, oats, and hay for the "stock." After the late "unpleasantness," this set of conditions changed. The high value of cotton induced the people to utilize every acre for producing the fleecy staple. The South began to keep her corn-crib in the North and West instead of at home. The proceeds of the cotton crop were used to defray every expense. All things were bought and sold on a credit of a year's time, and the farmer not only paid excessive profits for what he got, but bought extravagantly. During these years the rural South did not improve her condition. The planter at "settling" time either was in debt to his merchant or had little to his credit. If in debt, the merchant "secured" himself by a mortgage on the plantation.

The mechanism that controlled the growing and marketing of the crop, however, became rich. These middlemen are called cotton factors or commission merchants, and have generally in connection with their cotton offices a wholesale grocery house. They make a business of advancing supplies for making the crop, and, when the cotton is gathered in the fall, it is shipped to them to be sold. A stiff rate of interest is charged on the sum of money representing the amount of supplies advanced. The commission received by the factor for selling cotton is 2½ per cent.; besides, there are numerous incidentals, such as profits on storage, insurance, and loose sample cotton. This commission, until within the past few years, amounted to about $2 for each bale of cotton. The number of bales received each year by the average commission merchant was 20,000, although some have received as high as 160,000 bales in a single season. As a consequence, the South's wealthiest class are those who are or who have been cotton factors.

When the price of cotton fell below the cost of production, commission merchants generally declined to make advances, or, when they were made, curtailed them very much. The Southern tiller of the soil for the first time experienced the feeling of not being able to buy everything he wanted on credit. He was, however, not put to extreme hardship thereby. Climatic conditions did not cause him to worry for many clothes. His severest deprivation was the lack of the chief articles of his diet, viz., clear-rib pork, molasses, corn-bread, and coffee. He was in no danger of starving, as his cow furnished milk and butter, his chickens supplied eggs and meat, his "garden-patch" vegetables, while fruit grew wild in abundance. This condition of affairs he set about to remedy, and right well has he succeeded. In three years he has revolutionized his economics of farming. Instead of paying the large profits of numerous middlemen, he grows at home what he uses. In the past spring the South, instead of buying from the West millions of dollars' worth of corn and meal, has, for the first time in twenty-five years, a surplus, and is shipping it. The wheat area has been much widened, and sorghum molasses is a drug on the market. Very few packing-house products have been bought, and, from the large number of hogs in sight, the South will be a liberal seller of meat next year.

While these facts are such as to cause rejoicing in one section, they cause alarm elsewhere. The West has lost her best customer. The coming corn crop will be at least 250,000,000 bushels larger than the country's greatest crop, and the prospect is of an extremely low price. Northern and Western packing-houses will be much more restricted to exporting their product. Therefore every foreign discrimination against the American hog becomes doubly important.

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The Southern planter, by his new method of farming, can make a fair profit in cotton at even the present low price. Not being under obligations to the factor, the grower disposes of his cotton at the nearest railroad depot, thus saving both freight and commissions. He can sell his cotton when he thinks the price is right, and his ideas in that respect cannot be criticised for being too low. This fact will tend to maintain prices, as it will prevent an avalanche of cotton from being thrown upon the market during the first four months of the cotton season, and the crop will be sold more gradually throughout the year.

The crop diversification consists principally in fruits, vegetables, grains, and grasses. During the past spring a very large crop of potatoes was planted and a splendid price gotten. In fact, many who sold at the best time realized, net, over one hundred dollars an acre. It is to be remembered that there is also the fall crop, which is generally more profitable. Arkansas, Tennessee, and Mississippi were especially successful with the spring potato crop. This diversification of crops has been much accelerated by the intelligent sefishness of many of the railroads in the matter of rates and daily fruit expresses, thus putting thousands of miles of virgin territory into close communication with the great consuming centres. Another effect of the crop variation is that it has killed the credit system. Instead of money coming in only once a year, the marketing of various crops at different times has kept it coming in at all seasons.

A most striking result of the decline in cotton values has been the rapid breaking up of large plantations into smaller farms, which fact assures a careful cultivation of the soil up to the point of diminishing returns. This was brought about as follows: The fall in the price of cotton caused the foreclosure of many mortgages on plantations, which were bought in by the crediting loan companies and commission merchants. There was absolutely no demand for land. The drop, therefore, in value was very marked. The best lands could be bought for from ten to fifteen dollars per acre. The only way to sell at all was to break the plantations up into small farms. Real-estate firms began to send representatives to travel among the class of people in the Northern-Middle and some of the Northwestern States who rent land. There values range from seventy-five to one hundred and five dollars per acre, and the property is in strong hands and cannot be bought for less. Many of these tenants have accumulated two or three thousand dollars, a sum for which they cannot buy where they are, but can buy a very nice farm in the South. Besides, the South's climatic conditions are more favorable. The heat in summer is no greater than it is in the North, and the summers are longer; consequently, there is less danger of crop failure. Again, many articles permit of two and even three crops a year. In winter the weather is so mild that cattle do not need to be housed; in short, the material advantages of the South were shown to be such as to make living there easier than in the North.

Accordingly, prospective buyers have come down by the thousands. A great many have bought and settled, while others are coming in every day. At last the tide of emigration has turned to the South. The great Southern trunk lines have been largely instrumental in bringing about the result. They have not only been extremely active in settling parties along their lines, but have also brought in a great many excursions of prospective buyers.

The rapid betterment of the condition of the agricultural South will have its beneficial effect on the industrial South. The change in the method of selling the cotton crop will lessen the need for the present great number of commission merchants. The growing of home supplies will decrease the need for the large number of wholesale grocers. Home capital will thus be loosed to find its way especially into those industries which use as raw materials iron, cotton, and lumber — industries which the South must ultimately control because of her cheap labor and the cheapness and proximity of her fuel and raw materials.

WYATT COLLIER ESTES.

THE MIDDLE AGES AND THE RENAISSANCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The communication of "A. L." in the current number of the *Nation* shows that a juster estimate of the Middle Ages is forming among men who are now devoting themselves to mediæval studies. A faithful student of the fine arts of those times can hardly retain the view that has been widely held respecting them. Every such student must be impressed with the fact that they afford evidence of intellectual life and executive powers of the highest order. In these arts he finds the fundamental principles that gave form to the arts of antiquity still largely operative, though, under changed conditions, the modes of expression are naturally changed. The value of the best product of the Renaissance will doubtless always be recognized; but to regard the movement as a return to principles that had been wholly lost sight of, and as in all respects salutary in spirit, is to misapprehend it. In fact, the Italian Renaissance, though fruitful in works expressing the highest order of genius, was animated by a spirit of brilliant retrospection rather than of new life, and contained from the first the seeds of the deplorable decadence of the arts that marked the close of the sixteenth century.—Yours very truly,

CHARLES H. MOORE.

EAST BOXFORD, MASS., September 6, 1895.

Notes.

THE important announcement is made in the 'Publishers' Trade-List Annual for 1895' (New York: *The Publishers' Weekly*), that, if the trade support the undertaking, an index like that of the English Whitaker's 'Reference Catalogue' will be attempted next year in connection with the American work. It will not be bound up with the latter, but will appear very shortly after the issue of the 'Annual.' Some omissions of preliminary lists have kept the bulk of this year's 'Annual' within that of its immediate predecessor.

Charles Scribner's Sons have nearly ready 'The Huguenots and the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes,' by Prof. Henry Martyn Baird; and 'Margaret Winslow,' by Mrs. Alice Morse Earle, the first volume in a new series of "Women of Colonial and Revolutionary Times."

Henry Holt & Co. will issue 'The Science of Finance,' by Prof. Henry C. Adams of the University of Michigan; 'The Ideals of German Literature,' by Prof. Kuno Francke of Harvard; 'A Reader in Scientific German,' by Profs. Brandt of Hamilton and Day of Swarthmore; and Hertwig's 'General Principles of Zoölogy,' translated by Prof. G. W. Field of Brown.

From Roberts Bros. we are to have 'Constantinople,' by Prof. Edwin A. Grosvenor of Amherst; 'The Wood beyond the World,' a prose romance by William Morris; the first volume of Harnack's 'History of Dogma'; the fifth of Renan's 'History of the People of Israel'; 'From Jerusalem to Nicæa: The Church in the First Three Centuries,' by Philip Stafford Moxom; 'Modern German Literature,' by Benjamin W. Wells; Hamerton's 'Painting in France, after the Decline of Classicism,' 'Contemporary French Painters,' and 'Imagination in Landscape Painting,' all numerously illustrated; 'Dante Gabriel Rossetti: his Family Letters,' in two volumes, by William M. Rossetti; 'An Old Convent School, and Other Papers,' by Susan Coolidge; 'The Helen Jackson Year-Book,' edited by Harriet T. Perry; and 'Margaret and Her Friends, or Ten Conversations with Margaret Fuller upon the Mythology of the Greeks and its Expression in Art,' reported by Caroline W. Healey (Mrs. Dall).

We make the following selections from the extended list of autumn publications put forth by Macmillan & Co.: 'The Law of Civilization and Decay: An Essay in History,' by Brooks Adams; 'The Principles of Sociology,' by Prof. F. H. Giddings of Columbia College; 'Essays in Taxation,' by Prof. E. R. A. Seligman of Columbia; 'The Life, Letters, and Works of Louis Agassiz,' in two volumes, by Jules Marcou; 'The Structure and Development of the Mosses and Ferns (Archegoniatæ),' by Prof. D. H. Campbell of Leland Stanford Junior University; 'Fishes, Living and Fossil,' by Bashford Dean of Columbia; 'Cases of Roman Law,' selected and arranged by Prof. Munroe Smith of Columbia; 'Bookbindings, Old and New,' by Prof. Brander Matthews of Columbia; 'A Brief History of English,' by Prof. O. F. Emerson of Cornell: 'New Orleans: The Place and the People,' by Grace King; 'Lectures on Art,' by John La Farge; 'The Political History of England,' by Goldwin Smith; 'Ethical Discourses,' by Leslie Stephen; 'Lectures on Political Science,' and 'The Growth of the British Policy,' by Sir John R. Seeley; 'The Letters of Matthew Arnold, 1848-1888,' in two volumes, edited by George W. E. Russell; 'The Works of William and Dorothy Wordsworth,' in sixteen volumes, edited by William Knight; 'The Works of Alfred, Lord Tennyson, Poet Laureate,' *édition de luxe* in ten volumes, limited to 150 copies for sale; 'A Handbook to Tennyson's Works,' by E. Morton Luce; 'Browning as a Philosophical and Religious Teacher,' by Prof. Henry Jones of the University of Glasgow; 'The Letters of Edward Fitzgerald to Fanny Kemble,' edited by William Aldis Wright; 'Literary Types (De Quincey, etc.),' by E. Beresford Chancellor; 'The Greater Victorian Poets,' by Prof. Hugh Walker; a new volume of Poems by the late Christina Rossetti, edited by her brother; 'Masterpieces of the Great Artists, 1400-1700,' with numerous illustrations, the text by "N. D'Anvers"; 'Raphael,' by Julia Cartwright; 'A Guide to the Paintings of Venice,' by Karl Karoly; 'The Art of Velasquez: A Critical Study,' by R. A. M. Stevenson; 'Sir Frederick Leighton, Bart., P. R. A.; An Illustrated Chronicle,' by Ernest Rhys; 'Architecture in Italy, from the Sixth to the Eleventh Century,' by Raffaele Cattaneo; 'A Handbook of Greek Sculpture,' by Ernest Gardner; 'Etching in England,' by Frederick Wedmore; 'Modern Book Illustration,' by Joseph Pennell; 'Ladies' Bookplates,' by Norna Labouchere; 'Picture Post-

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ers : A Handbook on the History of the Illustrated Placard,' by C. T. J. Hiatt ; 'A Book about Fans,' by Mary Cadwalader Jones ; 'The Beginning of the Middle Ages,' by Dean Church ; 'The Oxford Church Movement,' by the late George Wakeling ; 'The Life of Cardinal Manning,' by Edmund Sheridan Purcell ; 'The Constitutional History and Constitution of the Church of England,' by Dr. F. Makower ; 'Sources of the Apostolic Canon,' by Prof. Adolf Harnack ; 'Outlines of Church History,' by Prof. Sohm ; 'John Knox,' by P. Hume Brown ; 'Hedonism and Hedonistic Theories, from Aristippus to Spencer,' by Prof. John Watson of Queen's University, Canada ; 'Vergil in the Middle Ages,' from the Italian of Prof. D. Comparetti ; 'Socrates and his Disciples,' by A. D. Godley ; 'Western Europe in the Fifth Century' and 'Western Europe in the Eighth Century,' Oxford lectures by the late Edward A. Freeman ; 'Essays in Historical Subjects,' by the late Bishop Lightfoot ; 'Oxford and her Colleges : A View from the Radcliffe Library' ; 'Rome,' by Mrs. Oliphant ; 'History of the Ptolemies,' by Prof. J. P. Mahaffy ; 'Studies in Economics,' by Prof. William Smart ; 'Old-World Japan,' legends retold by Frank Rinder ; 'The Scenery of Switzerland,' by Sir John Lubbock ; 'An Artist in the Himalayas,' by A. D. McCormick, companion of Sir W. M. Conway in his recent exploration ; 'The Blind Musician,' a story of Handel, by Emma Marshall ; 'The Private Life of Warren Hastings,' by Sir Charles Lawson ; 'Sketches in Sport and Natural History,' by the late George Kingsley, M.D. ; 'Wild England of To-day, and the Wild Life in It,' by C. J. Cornish ; 'Inmates of My House and Garden,' by Mrs. Brightwen ; 'Dog Stories' from the *Spectator* of the past fifteen years, by J. St. Leo Strachey ; 'Artistic and Scientific Taxidermy and Modelling,' by Montagu Browne ; 'Studies in the Art Anatomy of Animals,' by Ernest E. Thompson ; 'Zoölogy,' in three volumes, by Prof. E. Ray Lankester ; 'The Structure of Man,' by Prof. Wiedersheim ; 'A History of Mankind,' by Prof. F. Ratzel ; 'Elements of Palæontology,' by Prof. von Zittel ; 'Andersen's Fairy Tales,' selected and translated by Mrs. Edgar Lucas, with illustrations by Linley Sambourne ; and 'The Song of Roland,' a summary with verse renderings by Arthur Way and Frederic Spencer.

'Mind and Motion and Monism,' the last work of the late George John Romanes, and 'The Tribal System in Wales,' by Frederick Seebohm, are announced by Longmans, Green & Co.

The Bowen-Merrill Co., Indianapolis, are on the point of issuing in two volumes 'Conquest of the Northwest,' by Hon. William H. English, which will embrace a complete life of Gen. George Rogers Clark, with much novel information regarding the settlers on Clark's Grant in Indiana.

The Sargent Publishing Co., Chicago, have in press 'Francis Bacon and his Shakspere,' a new Baconian advocacy, by Theron S. E. Dixon, a member of the bar.

Stone & Kimball, Chicago, will make a volume of Izaak Walton's lives of Donne, Wotton, Hooker, Herbert, and Sanderson for their "English Classics Series." They will also issue a volume of translations of tales from the current "Belgian Renaissance" by Mrs. Wingate Rinder, entitled 'The Massacre of the Innocents.'

'A Sketch of the Life and Work of the Painter Domenico Morelli,' by Ashton R. Willard, with seven illustrations of that artist's work ; a 'Whittier Year-book,' and a new and enlarged edition of Miss Agnes Repplier's 'Essays in Miniature,' along with a new edition of her five volumes in uniform binding, are shortly to be brought out by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The article on Thomas Paine in the forty-third volume of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) has the greatest interest for Americans ; but though Leslie Stephen reserved it for himself, and displays in it his well-known powers of compression and of pithy interjection, he seems to be working at second hand. There are also two unfortunate misprints, viz. : on p. 73, Mallison for Madison, and on p. 76, "Penn's house at Bordentown" for Paine's. Mr. Stephen is, again, the biographer of Paley, with much more immediate knowledge and with a genial sympathy. Genial in a markedly British degree is the account of Sir Harry Parkes, on which one craves some Oriental glosses. Twenty pages are given to Parnell, the notice being unsigned. One meets in this volume, with a shade of surprise, with Paoli and Parepa-Rosa, but, on the other hand, one looks in vain for the British-born James Parton, the historian. Readers who remember how Franklin in his 'Poor Richard' ruined a rival almanac-maker by pretending he was dead, will find the hint for this trickery in Swift's treatment of the astrologer John Partridge.

The most interesting reprint of the week is the German translation of 'Ben-Hur' issued by the Messrs. Harper themselves. The version is by "H. W. S.," and is presented in the Gothic letter of a readable size. The same house sends us a revised and much-enlarged edition of Prof. Adams S. Hill's 'Principles of Rhetoric,' whose merits are well known in teaching circles. From the Scribners we have another of the pretty volumes in the uniform Henry Kingsley series, viz., 'Leighton Court : A Country-House Story.' Another volume in Macmillan's revivals of the notable novels of the early part of the present century is made up of Thomas Love Peacock's 'Maid Marian and Crotchet Castle,' to which Mr. Saintsbury furnishes an introduction, biographical and critical. The dainty Dent-Macmillan "Temple Shakspere" still proceeds, with "King Richard III." and "King Henry V.," and it is announced that a request from one of the principal American universities has led to a change in the order of appearance, so that "Hamlet," "King Lear," and "Othello" will follow "King Henry VIII."

A State Library Bulletin issued at Albany under nominal date of June, 1895, embodies tabulated statistics for 1894 of New York libraries, which number 704 ; the larger half being in the University system. Eighty-one contain 10,000 volumes or more. The Astor Library is in the lead with 257,000 volumes, followed closely by the New York Mercantile with 244,000, and at a greater distance by the State (reference) Library at Albany with 193,712. Columbia's library of 175,000 is first in its class ; Cornell coming next with 159,000, and so raising the averages in its (Tompkins) County that this county possesses 5,509 books for every 1,000 persons, whereas New York County has but 997.

Petermann's Mitteilungen for August opens with an interesting notice of the various Indian tribes of southeastern Mexico and British Honduras, by Dr. C. Sapper. He briefly indicates the habitats of some twenty tribes, eleven of which belong to the Maya family, and then shows in what respects they are distinguished from each other, as, in the construction of their huts, their dress, occupations, musical instruments, and weapons. Among the latter are still to be found blow-guns, though European arms are commonly used. An ethnographical map accompanies the paper. This is followed by an account of the district of Hatzfeldthafen, one of the stations of the German New Guinea Company, together with a map of the country and a chart of the harbor, and a report of the exploration of the Rio Puelo, a river of Chili, by Dr. Hans Steffen. A supplemental number contains "Contributions to the physical geography of Montenegro, with particular reference to the Karst," by Dr. Kurt Hassert, with hydrographic and geological maps.

Sun and Shade (N. Y. Photo-Gravure Co.) seizes the occasion of the international yacht race to bring out a souvenir edition of "Cup Challengers and Defenders" from the *America* to date. The present contestants have each a full plate ; the other pairs divide the page.

A Boston correspondent informs us that Franklin's letter to Shelburne, printed in our last number as a novelty, is to be found in Sparks's 'Diplomatic Correspondence,' vol. iii., p. 377. We had satisfied ourselves that it was not included in Bigelow's edition of Franklin's Writings.

—In the September *Harper's*, articles of merit are dealt out with a free hand. Whether, however, the winning card turns out to be Richard Harding Davis's "Three Gringos in Central America" or Owen Wister's clever "Evolution of the Cow-Puncher," is a sufficiently open question to give zest to a critical comparison of the two. It would hardly be possible to write more readably than does Mr. Davis in the account of his scramble on mule-back towards the inland capital of Honduras—not yet reached in the present paper. Good-humor and an eye for details, even when these consist largely of alligators, insects, and personal discomforts, are excellent adjuncts to pioneering in the interest of journalism. Owen Wister, on the other hand, shows that the swashing qualities of the cow-puncher are merely those which are bred in the bone of the Saxon, expressing themselves in different ways at different times and places. The riata, the quirt, and the cinch are thus but nineteenth-century substitutes for sword and buckler, as the rider who riots over our Western cattle-ranges is brother in blood to knight, buccaneer, or colonist. A plentiful number of bright sayings find place in this argument, which is illustrated by an international episode that deserves credit for unexpectedly preserving, at this late date, the savor of originality. Slight as it is, Thomas A. Janvier's "At the Grand Hôtel du Paradis" bears, in its finish of outline and delicacy of touch, the stamp of the artist. In strong contrast to it is Ian Maclaren's "Jamie," which entices the reader through the difficulties of its broad Scotch by passages of the sly humor whose secret is known only to that canny vernacular, and which has a pathos of the fine type that draws a smile and a tear at one and the same moment.

—*Scribner's* does not, this month, put its best foot foremost. Were it not for Mr. Van Dyke's paper "Au Large," not even the droll finale of Anthony Hope's two-part story, "The Wheel of Love," or Robert Grant's fluent and wide-awake summing up of the perennial journalistic *cause célèbre* of man versus the modern woman, could float the number to the level of interest demanded by the sophisticated consumer of periodical literature. Mr. Van Dyke, however, lights up fact with imagination in his

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account of camping and canoeing in the depths of the Canadian woods, and thereby makes the dangers of rapids-shooting and the vicissitudes of weather a pleasant tale to many to whom their reality would be a dubious enjoyment. His paper not only responds to the increasing inclination of those who stay at home as well as of those who ramble, to explore, by proxy or in person, comparatively untried and unfamiliar paths, but is a pleasant reminder that the ancient line of fishing-poets is happily not yet extinct.

—On the literary side, the *Century's* most successful representative for the month is Miss Jewett, who once more contrives to bring local color out of a white-faced Maine village, and complicated crises out of seemingly unrelieved monotony. Articles in periodicals by Prof. Woodrow Wilson are not of frequent occurrence; nevertheless, his urgent advocacy in this magazine of the need for imagination in the writing of history leaves room for the hope that he may, at some future time, be moved to explain at what point the historian should lay down and the historical novelist take up the pen. Foremost in claim upon immediate attention is, however, the paper in which General Boynton explains, with the aid of map and plan, the outlines, magnitude, and objects of the National Military Park, embracing the battlefields of Chickamauga and Chattanooga, which is to be dedicated with imposing ceremonies and fraternal participation of Federal and Confederate veterans alike, on September 19 to 21. In liberality of expenditure ($725,000 from Congress and $400,000 from the States) and in largeness of plan (which includes the marking by monuments, historical tablets, and batteries at the fighting positions of artillery, of the lines of six battlefields representing "eight days' operations, in five of which great armies were engaged") the national love of carrying out schemes on a huge scale is fully gratified. That the "one hundred and six monuments and the one hundred and fifty granite markers under contract to be finished and set up before the dedication" will expose on equally colossal scale the crying national need for education in another direction, seems only too likely. Ultimately to make, by the appointment of suitable commissions, this and our other national military parks object-lessons to the multitude in the arts of sculpture and landscape-gardening, as well as of battle, is an aim worth striving for, even in the face of improbability.

—The field of Chickamauga has already, indeed, inspired, as may be seen in the current *Atlantic*, one production of the best in its kind, in the shape of an attractive personal impression of scenery and ornithology, by Bradford Torrey. Vivid impressions of some of the historical events that centre about the once obscure Georgia farmhouses, now known to fame and to the patriotic pilgrim as the Dyer, Snodgrass, and Kelly houses, are also to be gained from this paper, in which a leading interest in the feathered inhabitants of the district has by no means taken the edge from observation of the traits characteristic of natives, or of military officials. Another national theme, "John Smith in Virginia," is handled with skill and charm by John Fiske. This comparison of Smith's own accounts of episodes in his versatile career with those of his enemies and detractors already does much towards rescuing the hero from the limbo of doubt and discredit into which it has been the fashion to cast him and his story; while a still further reinstatement of his character is to be hoped for in an article dealing with what Smith "naïvely calls his Rude Answer to the London Company, a paper bristling with common sense, and not timid when it comes to calling a spade a spade." Mr. James Schouler, in a second paper drawn from President Polk's diary, throws instructive light on several phases of the despoiling, Jingo policy of an administration whose disingenuous relations with Mexico resulted in the discreditable expansion of our territory from the Gulf of Mexico to the Pacific. The diary confirms the historical suspicion that Gen. Santa Anna and staff were, by official order, passed through our lines after the declaration of war, because there was reason to expect in him an artful ally in the scheme of Mexican dismemberment. Miss Repplier, who evidently travels as she reads—with her critical faculties on the *qui-vive*—carries with her the reader's full assent and sympathy in her vivacious plea for delivery from the guides who do so frequently beset us in foreign parts. In order to extract from a poem as rhythmless and of as little apparent meaning as Michael Field's "Tiger-Lilies" the proper measure of æsthetic sensation, a reader must, on the other hand, have been initiated in the poetic code of a present coterie of English versifiers.

—The most stupendous catalogue ever achieved in this country has just come to a temporary conclusion. A sixteenth volume ends the first series of the 'Index Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's office, U. S. A.' (Washington: Government Printing-Office). We have remarked on the progress of this admirable work in its successive stages, but it may be well to repeat (1.) that it is both an author- and a subject-catalogue, so that, for example, in the thirty-eight pages devoted to the rubric *Women*, there are classifications of general works on the diseases of woman prior to 1800 and subsequently, of works relating to women as physicians, etc.; or, again, that the eighty-five pages assigned to *Water* are followed by 164 pages showing the works on Mineral Waters *by localities*—a service to physicians and patients such as is surely rendered in no other publication the world over. (2.) When we used the word "works" we should more strictly have said writings, for the Catalogue takes cognizance not only of pamphlets and bound volumes, but also of the contents of medical periodicals, the mere list of which, with expanded titles, fills a supplementary volume of the Index of 282 pages. (3.) The dates covering an author's life are, when ascertainable, annexed to his name. (4.) The more outlandish foreign titles are as a rule translated into English. (5.) The publishers of books are recorded, along with date and place. This monument we owe primarily to Surgeon (now Deputy Surgeon-General) J. S. Billings, who, in announcing a second series of five volumes to be put to press directly, relinquishes the personal supervision he has given to the first series. He pays a just tribute to his principal assistant, Dr. Robert Fletcher, for the accuracy and rare typographical excellence of the Catalogue, as well as to the skilled proof-readers of the Government Printing-Office. The recorded Corrigenda are but trifling in so vast an undertaking. The further successful conduct of the work, therefore, seems well assured, and we may say in one breath, "The King is dead—Long live the King!"

—Besides *Women* and *Water*, the most significant titles in the present volume are *Wounds* (57 pp.), including the jurisprudence of wounds; *Wounded* (23 pp.), subdivided into care, and transportation, and "first aid," etc.; *Worms* (12 pp.), and *Wine* (9 pp.). *Wills* in their jurisprudential aspect make another important, if brief, category. Medical science and the law are occasionally joined in reports of criminal trials, as when, after a list of Dr John White Webster's contributions to chemistry, we come upon the literature of his *cause célèbre*, consequent upon his murder of Dr. Parkman—a conjunction happily rare in the experience of cataloguers. History is approached on another hand by works on the last illness of Daniel Webster and of Henry Wilson; theology, in an anonymous tractate of 1776, "Was bin ich, wenn ich nicht unsterblich sein?"—a question answered directly in the title, in this fashion: "Either [man is] immortal or worse than the beasts." The ever-recurring complaint of climatic changes appears in 1806 in John Williams's remarks on the alterations in the British climate "within the last fifty years," bringing increasing humidity and cloudiness, cold springs and "ungenial seasons." Electricity threatens to hasten the obsolescence of Georg Simon Winter's veterinary handbook called 'Hippiater expertus, seu medicina equorum absolutissima' (Nuremberg, 1678); but the human race can never (*pace* Brown-Séquard) be beyond the need of something like Johann Wittich's 'Consilium apoplecticum, seu de subitanea morte' (Leipzig, 1593). We wonder, in taking leave of the Catalogue for a space, what Tammany would make of the three columns which index the sanitary publications of Col. Waring, with two of the titles in Dutch and one in Spanish.

—Prof. George Stephens, who died last month in Copenhagen, at the ripe age of eighty-two, was by birth and early education an Englishman, although the greater and most useful part of his life was spent in Sweden and in Denmark, where he became a naturalized subject more than forty years ago. He was born in Liverpool in 1813. After preparing at various private and public schools, he was ultimately matriculated at University College, London. Upon attaining his majority he travelled on the Continent, and about 1834 settled in Sweden, where his first book, a students' edition of Shakspere's "Tempest," "written," as the title-page states, "to assist in spreading the study of English in Sweden," was printed in 1836. He soon became enthusiastically interested in the archæology and early culture, not only of Sweden, but of the whole Scandinavian north. In the search for material, public and private libraries were ransacked, and folk-tales, legends, and songs were collected from oral tradition. Two important works arose in this way, both written in collaboration with Hyltén-Cavallius, a Swedish author of repute, viz.: 'Svenska Folk-Sagor och Aefventyr' (1844) and 'Sveriges historiska och politiska Visor' (1853). The latter was published after he had changed his residence to Denmark, where he became lector in the English language and literature at the Copenhagen University in 1851. The year after, Anglo-Saxon was added to his subjects of instruction; the title of professor was given him in 1855. His most important work, a monument of enthusiastic, if at times not strictly critical, labor, is the great folio in English, 'The Old-Northern Runic Inscriptions of Scandinavia and England,' published from 1866 to 1884. The plan of this work was a most ambitious one, since it aimed to include the entire *corpus* of the runic inscriptions of the north (scores of

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which were represented for the first time in facsimile) on stones, coins, and other objects, together with complete readings and translations. The work as a whole, however, only partially fulfilled its purpose. The last-mentioned phase of the subject, particularly, was approached with more ardor than critical acumen, and the book has not become authoritative in its field, although its illustrations still entitle it to a prominent place in the literature of runes. Stephens's other literary work is of the most varied character imaginable. There is a vast array of articles, reviews and translations in Scandinavian and English journals and magazines, verse, original and translated, several more ambitious poems, and even a five-act melodrama, "Revenge, or Woman's Love," which contains numerous original songs. Of the many translations, perhaps the most important is a metrical version of Tegnér's 'Frithiof's Saga' (1839). Personally Prof. Stephens was one of the kindliest and most genial of men. With an aptitude rare in members of his guild, he knew how to come into friendly personal contact with his students; and the evenings which he was accustomed to give them at his house, amid the apparently inexhaustible treasures of his library, always drew together an interested group. His particular passion, although he dipped or delved, as the case might be, in so many other directions, was always the northern runes, and it was a familiar sight on the occasions mentioned to see him buttonhole an interlocutor with one hand, while he traced imaginary runes upon him with the other. He reaped a rich crop of honors. He was member and honorary member of many learned societies, and the recipient at various times of Swedish and Danish orders.

THE *CHALLENGER* EXPEDITION.—I.

Report on the Scientific Results of the Voyage of H. M. S. Challenger during the years 1872–76: A Summary of the Scientific Results. By John Murray, one of the Naturalists of the Expedition. In two parts, with Appendices. London. 1895.

THESE two volumes bring to a close a stupendous undertaking. From the time when the *Challenger* set out on her memorable voyage in 1872, and until the issue of the concluding volumes of the Report in the early part of 1895, nothing has been left undone to make the undertaking a success. The earlier dredging expeditions off Spitzbergen by Dr. Otto Torell, the work of Dr. Wallich in 1860, that of the elder and younger Sars off the coast of Norway, the cruise of the U. S. C. S. S. *Corwin* under Pourtalès in the Straits of Florida, as well as the earlier English expeditions of the *Lightning*, *Porcupine*, and *Shearwater*, all prepared the way for the successful work of the *Challenger*. The British Government, on the representation of the Royal Society and other scientific bodies, organized an expedition for the exploration of the deep waters of the great oceans. The *Challenger* was fitted out under the direction of Admiral G. H. Richards, the Hydrographer of the Admiralty Office of the time. The naval officers were specially selected for the cruise, and a great part of the success of the expedition is due to the spirit in which the commanders of the *Challenger*, Captains Nares and Thomson, coöperated with the scientific staff of the expedition. The Scientific Director was Prof. C. Wyville Thomson, who may be said to have been, with Dr. W. B. Carpenter, the originator of the earlier English expeditions. He was assisted by Mr. J. J. Buchanan, Prof. H. N. Moseley, John Murray, Dr. R. v. Willemoes-Suhm, and Mr. J. J. Wild. On the return of the *Challenger* to England in May, 1876, began the task of examining the collections, and of preparing for publication the results of the physical and biological observations. This work was placed in charge of Sir Wyville Thomson, with Mr. Murray as his principal assistant. Thomson's health soon broke down, and on his death Mr. Murray was appointed his successor. From 1882 to the present time, Murray has been employed in the superintendence of the publications in consultation with a committee of the Royal Society of London. At the time of Sir Wyville Thomson's death, only a few of the Zoölogical memoirs had been issued, so that 48 of the 50 quarto volumes which constitute this superb series have appeared under Dr. Murray's supervision.

The Zoölogical memoirs of course fill the greater number of the volumes (32 bound in 40 parts). There are in addition two volumes of Narrative, two volumes devoted to the Physics, Chemistry, and Meteorology of the Ocean, one volume dealing with the Geology and Petrography, two volumes of Botany, and finally the concluding volumes in two parts by Dr. Murray giving a Summary of the expedition. The writing of the results was an international episode of the deepest interest for scientific investigation. It was intrusted to the leading specialists in the different departments, and the authors of these numerous memoirs belonged to many nations. Naturally the English men of science are in the great majority, but we find among the writers Germans, Danes, Russians, Norwegians, Swedes, Italians, Belgians, French, Dutch, and Americans. "The majority of the authors of the special memoirs have spent years in the examination of the collections and in the preparation of their manuscripts and illustrations for the press, without other remuneration than either a copy of the *Challenger* publications or a small honorarium to cover the outlay necessitated by their research." Many of the monographs deal with groups of animals our knowledge of which has been greatly modified by the discoveries of the *Challenger*. If the new types found living upon the floor of the Ocean have not differed from their shallow-water congeners as much as was expected in some quarters, yet the discovery of the conditions under which the inhabitants of the great depths live has been of the utmost physiological interest.

It is interesting to note the development of the methods of studying the physical and biological conditions of the sea. Although the invention of the dredge dates back to the last century, it was not extensively used, nor at any considerable depth, until comparatively lately, sharing the same fate as the maximum and minimum thermometer of Cavendish, invented at an even earlier date. As late as the middle of the present century the organisms living near the surface of the sea had been but little studied. The scooping net of Johannes Müller has little by little developed into various ingenious contrivances for catching pelagic organisms at any depth from the surface downwards. The visits of single investigators to the seashore have been replaced by the establishment of permanent laboratories at favorable localities in both Europe and America and elsewhere. Finally, the greater problems of thalassography began to be attacked by national vessels acting within their own domain, these limited explorations resulting in the equipment of the *Challenger* expedition by Great Britain, an expedition as honorable to the nation organizing it as it has been creditable to the officers and scientific staff who carried it to a successful termination. Before 1860 there was no apparatus with which to investigate the depths of the sea. All has been devised since that time, and it would be difficult to recognize in the equipment of a modern deep-sea dredger the cumbersome machinery originally in use. Thermometers, sounding-machines, bottles for collecting water and gases, dredges, trawls, tangles, surface and deep-sea nets, traps, dredging-ropes, sounding-wires, and photographic apparatus, all had to be adapted and modified to give their answers to the many new questions suggested by each of the earlier deep-sea expeditions. With their experience, thalassographic work can now be carried on by a properly equipped vessel with ease, accuracy, rapidity, and at a comparatively moderate cost.

The specialist will naturally turn to the monographs of the branch which interests him to be found in the volumes preceding the Summary. We can only hope, in this short sketch of the results of the expedition, to give the general reader some idea of what has been accomplished by the *Challenger*, using the Summary of Dr. Murray, and often in his own words. The first part of his closing volumes opens with an account of the science of oceanography, and is followed by an historical sketch beginning with the views of the ancients, passing to those held during the dark ages, the middle ages, and the Renaissance, next to the progress of knowledge from Magellan to Cook and Cook to the *Challenger* and the subsequent expeditions. This interesting sketch is illustrated with a series of maps showing the growth of our knowledge of the distribution of the sea, and we may express the hope that it will eventually be published in a form more accessible to the general reader. The second part contains an alphabetical index, which serves as a list of all the species procured by the *Challenger*. It fills 110 quarto pages of names arranged in three columns. This is followed by a general index.

The eighty-third and last part of the Zoological series and a Report on Oceanic Circulation by Dr. Buchan complete the *Challenger* series of publications. The Zoölogical memoir is by Dr. Pelsener; it treats of Spirula, and is illustrated by plates in greater part from drawings by Huxley, in whose hands the specimens collected by the *Challenger* and *Blake* had been placed. He, however, was unable to go on with the work, and it was then taken up by Dr. Pelsener. The memoir on Oceanic Circulation is a most important contribution to our knowledge of the distribution of temperature in the ocean at different depths. The temperature is shown at depths of 10, 15, 20, 25, to 200 fathoms, to ascertain approximately the depth at which the influence of the season is no longer felt in the open ocean. This depth was provisionally fixed at 100 fathoms. Dr. Buchan's memoir is accompanied by charts of the world, showing the specific gravity of the ocean at the surface and bottom and the mean distribution of temperature at depths of 100, 200, to 1,000, 1,500, and 2,200 fathoms, together with a chart showing the bottom temperatures of the ocean from 1,000 fathoms downwards. "The most striking fact revealed by deep-sea observations of temperatures is the very low temperature of the ocean at great depths in all latitudes, this being but a little way above the freezing-point of fresh water. The average of all the observations at a depth of 2,200 fathoms is 35.2°."

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Perhaps the most useful summary of the work of the *Challenger* is that given by Murray of the observations carried out, and of the scientific results obtained, at each station occupied at sea. This gives us faunal lists; as it were, both bathymetrical and geographical, together with the observations made by the *Challenger* relating to the physical conditions of the locality examined. Such information could naturally not be obtained without great labor and without a most careful analysis of the memoirs forming the *Challenger* publications, and of the information contained in the log-book, in the writer's own notes and in those of his colleagues. Accompanying the station summaries are found the temperature diagrams, the detailed charts showing the positions of the *Challenger* stations prepared by Staff Commander Tizard. No less than 354 stations are thus summarized, the lists filling 1,200 pages of the quarto report. The faunal lists are supplemented by strictly bathymetrical lists, in which the species have been grouped together in seven zones of depth—the zone from the shore to 100 fathoms, the zone between 100 and 500 fathoms, that from 500 to 1,000, and so on every 500 fathoms to 2,500, and one zone beyond that depth; the 100-fathom line in reality representing the mud line, as Murray calls it, the usual limit of the extension of terrigenous deposits. The list of animals taken in each bathymetrical zone is further analyzed to show what proportion has been found in the other zones, and how far geographical range, especially north and south of the equator, has affected the bathymetrical range.

The number of stations occupied by the *Challenger* beyond the 2,500-fathom line is only twenty-five, and over 2,000 thirty; the deepest haul was made in 3,125 fathoms about 1,000 miles from the Sandwich Islands on the way from Yokohama to Honolulu. At that depth three species of annelids, four of polyzoa, and a tunicate were collected. Although the dredging tracks of the *Challenger* and of other deep-sea expeditions have covered very limited areas, yet they prove that animal life is distributed all over the floor of the ocean. Still, it is also apparent, both from the number of specimens of species and of genera found beyond the 1,000-fathom line, that animal life rapidly decreases in abundance as we go to the extreme depths of the ocean and at a great distance from continental and insular slopes. The table of bathymetrical distribution of bottom-inhabiting species given by Murray on p. 1430 is most interesting in this respect.

Murray calls attention to the greater number of genera as well as species in proportion to the number of specimens as one of the marked peculiarities of the hauls in very deep water, while in depths of less than 500 fathoms immense numbers of individuals, all belonging to the same species, may be captured in a single haul, in spite of the fact that in shallower waters the total number of genera and species inhabiting their whole areas is much greater than in deeper waters. This must depend to a certain extent on the character of the bottom, for it does not seem to hold good invariably in the deep waters of either the Panamic or West Indian areas. Within the 100-fathom line, in the shallower reaches of the ocean, a great variety of conditions exist on the floor of the shore plateaus, and on those bottoms is usually found a very different assemblage of animals. With increasing depth the nature of the deposits as well as other physical conditions become more and more uniform until a depth is reached on the continental slopes, facing the oceans immediately below, in which the conditions become nearly uniform in all parts of the world, and where the fauna likewise presents a great uniformity. Murray has placed this depth at 100 fathoms. Undoubtedly the 100-fathom line is an important limit of depth and indicates usually the edge of the oceanic continental slope. Yet it seems to us as if the more limited deep-sea explorations of the *Blake* and the *Albatross* along continental slopes indicated that in many localities there was considerable variety in the nature of the bottom, as, for instance, in volcanic and coral-reef districts and off rocky shores, where faunal conditions of very great variety extend to depths considerably beyond the mud line and approach very near the 500-fathom line. We should be inclined to extend the limit of uniformity into greater depths than 100 fathoms along the oceanic continental slopes—certainly to 150, and often to more than 300 fathoms.

While we fully agree with Murray in considering the fauna living near the 100 fathom line as probably that from which the deep-sea faunæ were derived, it seems somewhat hazardous, in our present state of knowledge, to affirm as emphatically as he does that the majority of the animals living within the 100-fathom line have pelagic larvæ, while the majority of those living at the mud line have a direct development like those found in very deep water. The interesting tables (i., p. 1430) of the bathymetrical range of the species collected by the *Challenger* present in a vivid manner the quantitative migration of the deep-water fauna which has taken place within the 100-fathom line to the other bathymetrical zones. The downward migration appears clearly indicated by the fact that of those species which are found in other zones, as well as in the one under consideration, a larger number is found in the shallower zone above than in the deeper zone below.

We should remember that the observations on which Murray bases his conclusions, although extending to all the great oceans, are yet limited to a mere thread of dredging lines across the abyssal waters of the Atlantic, Pacific, and Southern Oceans. Consequently, we may expect Murray's views on the distribution of marine organisms to be modified by explorations in more limited fields. It would be a most interesting and important addition to the work of the *Challenger* to have the material collected by the *Blake* and *Albatross* during a series of years on the two sides of the North American continent submitted to such a searching analysis as that made by Dr. Murray for the *Challenger* collections.

OMAN'S ENGLAND.

A History of England. By Charles Oman, Fellow of All Souls' College, Oxford, etc. London: Edward Arnold. Pp. iv, 760.

THIS book, its well-known author tells us, has been prepared as a result of ten years' teaching in the Honor School of Modern History at Oxford. Its special aim is to give all periods of English history a more accurately apportioned space than they get in many of the short histories already published. The task cannot be called well executed; it is, of course, not easy, but, after Dr. Johnson, one is tempted to wish it were impossible. University examinations, while they extend and encourage study, are rapidly operating to limit and discourage knowledge, by multiplying just such compends, which, even when conscientiously and intelligently written, simply supply the examined with what will be their maximum, even if it be put forward by examiners as a minimum. It is a sad prospect if in future the history of England, and many other subjects, shall be got up by almost everybody in one-volume manuals, studied from the original documents by a few specialists, and read in real books by—nobody.

Mr. Oman has tried to give his book more freshness and spirit than such compends generally have. His views are as independent as will be safe for a lecturer in just this age. Henry VIII. is a villain without redemption, though Mr. Oman admits that he thoroughly understood his people; on the other hand, Cromwell is pronounced never to have had the assent of a majority of his countrymen to his peculiar opinions. This merely shows the present state of reaction at Oxford from the Carlylism which swept over England forty years ago. Mr. Oman's one hero is Lord Palmerston, "by far the most striking personage in the middle years of the century," though he did as much in his way to coarsen English political ethics as Walpole himself, considering the difference of their times.

By far the greater space is still given to war and politics; religious, literary, social, and industrial history being admitted in rather a perfunctory way. But it requires a genius to do otherwise. The accounts of battles are helped by small sketch-plans, selected on no very definite principle, which do much to elucidate some very obscure fights—notably Poitiers. The style is generally good, sensible English; but the early periods are treated in a strange semi-romantic, semi-archaic style (like the "Lady of the Lake" without the metre), which, drawing as it does from the vocabulary of all ages, is not the pure prose of any one. Some of these fantasticalities are used throughout; for instance, "governaunce" is employed to describe the rule of kings and statesmen who never heard it out of the Book of Common Prayer. Such blemishes would do little harm if the book were otherwise satisfactory; but, in point of fact, it is full of omissions, blunders, and careless writing, fatal to a treatise which is nothing if not rigidly accurate. The author's position and reputation are likely to give it a wide circulation, and justify our devoting more space to it than books of its class are generally entitled to.

To begin with the omissions, nothing is said about the systematic and continuous endowment of colleges and grammar-schools under the Tudors; Wolsey's College is just mentioned, and "schools" as one of Henry's promises only. The bishopric of Westminster is mentioned as founded; its almost immediate abolition is left out (p. 303). Elizabeth's marriage schemes are dismissed in two lines, without naming either *Monsieur* or Stubbs. The shutting up of the exchequer by the Cabal does not appear. The Jacobite attempt at invasion of 1708 is unmentioned, and so are all the royal vetoes, of the last of which that attempt was the cause. In our Revolutionary war certain battles are selected for allusion; but no direct mention is made of White Plains, Trenton, Princeton, Germantown, Bennington, Monmouth, Cowpens, King's Mountain, or Eutaw; no American general is named but Washington, Gates, and Lafayette, nor is André alluded to. In the war of 1812, no captures but those of the three frigates are mentioned. The bed-chamber quarrel of 1839 finds no place in the history of the Whig and Tory ministries.

If some of these omissions do not seem serious, what shall we say of absolute blunders?

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Beginning with misspellings like Huntington (p. 77), Carnwarth for Carnwath twice, Pensylvania and Charlestown for Charleston (map, p. 520), we go on to the following: Shakespeare was born in 1564, not 1566 (p. 343); New Amsterdam was settled in 1623, not 1632 (p. 409); Charles II. did not die of smallpox (p. 435); Locke was removed from his studentship by Charles II., not by James II. (p. 440); William's Assembly of Notables is confounded with the Convention Parliament (p. 446); Anne died August 1, not 30 (p. 480); Viscount Kenmure was not Earl of Kenmuir (p. 489); Fontenoy was fought in May, not in June (p. 504). On the change of style we are told (p. 513) that Julius Cæsar made the Roman year a little too short! Washington's force was not made prisoners at Great Meadows (p. 521); Byng was not tried till after Newcastle resigned (p. 524); it was not Gage who evacuated Boston in March, 1776 (p. 547); Ross did not land in Virginia, but in Maryland (p. 627); the Princess Charlotte was married in 1816, and died in 1817, not as given on p. 639; the Treaty of 1842 did not settle our Northwest boundary (p. 665).

All but the worst of these blunders, however, are less teasing than a number of careless expressions which will inevitably mislead as they stand, though not absolutely false if looked at round the corner, as it were. Thus, King Offa (757-796) is said to have had for his friend and ally Charles the Great, Emperor of the West, who was not Emperor till 800. On page 292 we are told that Wolsey was dismissed from the office of Chancellor, and his place given to the Duke of Norfolk. But the chancellorship was given to Sir Thomas More, and Norfolk succeeded to Wolsey only as general adviser. Woburn Abbey is put among the monasteries at the *North* (p. 301). Warwick, it is said, took the forfeited title of Duke of Northumberland (p. 312). He took this title, but it was only an earldom that had been forfeited. "Norfolk and Suffolk, the most Protestant shires of England" (p. 314); is it possible that Mr. Oman does not know that the counties formed in Bernicia, East Anglia, Essex, Kent, and Sussex, are not shires at all, and never were? He speaks of the Northwest Passage (p. 334) as a water-way *falsely* said to exist round the northern shores of America; but every mile of water in the passage round North America has been traversed by some craft at some time, though no one has done it continuously. On page 402 the venerable English "Commonwealth" should not be called a "Republic." Vane was not indicted as a regicide in the same category with Harrison (p. 421). The charge against the bishops was pressed in any but a "half-hearted way" (p. 441). Marlborough is called "John Churchill," and his wife "Lady Churchill," up to the creation of his Dukedom, but he was made Earl of Marlborough fourteen years before. So, in our own century, no mention is made of Lord John Russell's elevation to an earldom, though there is of Disraeli's. To call the King "Earl" of Cornwall instead of "Duke" is almost disingenuous (p. 485). Carteret's favorite drink was Burgundy, not Port (p. 503)! On the map of the thirteen colonies, the northeastern boundary is sedulously given according to the British claim, and Concord is obviously in New Hampshire (p. 520). The original accounts of the Black Hole outrage do not appear to speak of women in the plural (p. 523). Pitt's ministry and his peerage were gazetted the same day; which is not at all the sense of the account on page 542. To say Lord North's ministry "enlisted Hessian auxiliaries" (p. 547) is a strange phraseology; and it is hardly less so to speak of him as craving office at any price (p. 557). Arkwright is spoken of as if he invented all spinning-machines and those for weaving as well (p. 562). The Berlin decree and the Milan decree are confused as the "Berlin decrees" (p. 611). The efforts of Romilly and Mackintosh for the reform of the criminal law, before Peel took it up, are ignored (p. 642).

Lastly, in the attempt to be rigidly impartial as to our civil war, occurs this noble sentence (the italics are ours): "On the other side it was urged that the Southern States were exercising an *undoubted* constitutional right in severing themselves from the Union; *and this was true enough in itself.*"

A Literary History of the English People from the Origins to the Renaissance. By J. J. Jusserand. Putnams.

"In nearly-every respect, thus, the Englishman of to day is formed, and receives his chief features, under the Angevin princes Edward III. and Richard II. We have had a glimpse of what he is; let us now listen to what he says." These sentences may be called the turning-point of M. Jusserand's 'History.' They close a chapter in the middle of the volume, and the next chapter takes up Chaucer as the poet of "the new nation." Our readers will readily infer the author's plan and method. In the first half of his book he seeks to define the mental and moral traits of Celt, Teuton, and Norman, to show how these races coalesced in forming a "new nation," and to describe the literature—Anglo-Saxon, French, Latin, English—produced during the coalescing periods. Thus he establishes, so to speak, the English people as we know it in Chaucer. In the second half he proceeds to bring the literary history of that people down to "the end of the Middle Ages." Throughout, the point of view is more or less ethnological. The works discussed interest the author by virtue of exemplifying the Germanic spirit, or the Celtic, or the French, or the spirit of the combined "new nation"; at all events, it is in this respect that he wishes to make them interesting to his readers. There is, to be sure, nothing new in these considerations themselves. The novelty consists in the author's submitting to their almost exclusive control in writing his 'History.' They determine the manner and have no small effect on the matter.

So far as this method serves to emphasize the composite nature of English literature, it is a good method, particularly as a corrective of the exaggerated Teutonism that has prevailed of late. But it has its disadvantages. Its exclusiveness is one: race is an important element in literature, but race is not everything. Another objection is that it tempts to a neglect of chronology; what are a few years more or less in the biography of the Anglo-Saxon spirit? M. Jusserand, at any rate, has yielded to this temptation, and some of his best chapters are embroiled thereby. Another habit of his increases the confusion. He likes to present his subject pictorially, but he does not compose his pictures well; he crowds his canvas with details till the eye is bewildered. Of course, in the case of an antiquary at once so learned and so lively, the anecdotes and extracts and the jottings of manners and customs are almost always pertinent and diverting, but the confusion remains. He seems to be not quite able to grasp his subject as a whole. Moreover, the ethnology of the volume is not entirely sound in itself. For some reason the author appears to be bent on effacing the Scandinavians. He finds no differences worth particularizing between Old Norse poetry and Anglo-Saxon poetry—why, we cannot conceive. He has little to say of the profound changes in language and national character wrought by the "Danish" settlements in England. Finally, instead of essaying the delicate but indispensable task of distinguishing as clearly as may be between Normans and Frenchmen, he is actually at some pains to obliterate the boundary line, so that his work, though differing from its predecessors in many respects, is at one with them in its failure to give an orderly account of the influence of France upon our literature and our language. How far his worship of "the Gallic spirit"—the deity of so many of his countrymen—is to blame for this lapse we shall not undertake to decide.

As a critic M. Jusserand is superficial. He says many clever things—some new things; but he is content to illuminate the surface of his subject, and his light is rather glittering than brilliant. All his critical qualities may be seen in the chapter on Chaucer or in that on Langland. Both are readable to the last degree, but neither of them deepens knowledge. Of Chaucer's humor M. Jusserand has a keen appreciation. His views on Langland are of course the same which he set forth in the able but untrustworthy monograph reviewed in these columns some time ago. In one particular M. Jusserand has an advantage over all previous writers of English literary history: we refer to his intimate acquaintance with the social life of our mediæval ancestors. Whatever he says on this subject may be read with instruction, and it will not seldom correct the erroneous judgments of profounder critics. His unusual knowledge of mediæval English politics also stands him in good stead, enabling him to present to his readers, in their appropriate places, a number of significant facts of a kind seldom seen in works of this character. As a philologist, in the narrower sense of the term, M. Jusserand is not strong. His scanty account of the formation of a literary language in England is evidence enough of his deficiencies in this direction.

It remains to inquire into the adequacy of this volume in the details of literary history proper, or, in other words, to inquire whether the requisite facts about books and authors are given with accuracy and due fulness. The outcome of such an inquiry will be, on the whole, favorable. M. Jusserand is much better equipped in these respects than most of his competitors, and his book may usually be consulted with confidence. There are a number of rather serious omissions—some of them, strange to say, in the department of French literature—but the information furnished is generally correct. The foot-notes contain a good selection of references and commonly call attention to the best editions. In short, M. Jusserand has a pretty good acquaintance with the results of modern scholarship, his work presenting in this respect a marked contrast to the first volume of Mr Courthope's 'History of English Poetry,' recently issued. Though complete in itself, the volume before us is to be one of three, if, as is to be hoped, the author is able to carry out his plan. The second volume will bring the history down to Pope, and the third will continue it to our own day.

Æsthetic Principles. By Henry Rutgers Marshall, M.A. Macmillan. 1895. 12mo, pp. x 198.

This is a charmingly pretty volume. The text

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is briefly and clearly written, and gives the results, and something more, of the investigations which the author has already published in more technical form, and which we reviewed a year ago. It has, therefore, every claim on the attention of those interested in the science of beauty, if we can speak of the science of so elusive a thing. Beauty would perhaps have been less elusive if the æstheticians had agreed better as to just what they were pursuing under that name. For the word may be used very broadly as covering the whole subject-matter of actual art, or very narrowly as implying a rare and exalted absolute quality which only the noblest and most archetypal works possess. In the latter case the quest is apt to resolve itself into that of a mere definition of an objective group of attributes, as smoothness, freedom, simplicity; in the former case the quest is psychological, and the theorist has to explain the grounds of "taste" in men and the reason of its fluctuations. What is accounted "beautiful" here becomes only one species of what may be pleasing and agreeably interesting. Mr. Marshall takes his subject in this broader way. Æsthetics is the science of what gives pleasure, whether by beauty in the narrow sense, or by mere novelty, vividness, or richness of suggestion. There can be no question of the superior importance of Mr. Marshall's point of view, or of the catholicity of his formulas. A history of art might be written *explaining* the changes of taste from age to age (and not quarrelling about them) better under cover of Mr. Marshall's theory than within the lines of any other with which we are acquainted.

And yet, when stated abstractly, this theory, like all æsthetic theories, sounds so *skinny* in comparison with the richness of the phenomena it includes that one wonders how principles so trivial should account for results so significant and precious. The field of æsthetic objects is for our author that of objects whose pleasantness remains permanent even to after-reflection. This excludes such sensual pleasures as are fleeting or give a negative after-image in retrospect. The more abundantly such permanently pleasant elements enter into a work, the richer it is; and the freer it is from unpleasant features, the purer it is æsthetically; so that the mere negative "elimination of the ugly" is one of the essential labors of the artist. Mr. Marshall's theory of pleasure and pain, including, as it does, an explanation of pains of restriction and pleasures of release, enables him to philosophize concerning the elimination of the displeasing more successfully than others have done. He goes into it with much detail in a special chapter of the book. "Imitation of nature," for example, and "truth" are often regarded as positive laws in art. Mr. Marshall well points out that they are mere negative precepts for avoiding the shocks which too suddenly violated mental habits bring. The true form of such laws rather is: "Avoid radical departures from the course of nature," "Avoid untruth"; this puts realism in its proper place in art. The principles of art criticism that follow from Mr. Marshall's æsthetic theory seem to us admirably wise and liberal. They are, moreover, very modestly stated by the author, whose book, we repeat, has an importance much greater than its bulk.

Des Effets des Annexions de Territoires sur les Dettes de l'État démembré ou annexé. Par Henri Appleton, avocat à la cour d'appel de Lyon. Paris: L. Larose. 1895.

The author of this work has undertaken to examine a subject which has been little discussed by writers on international law, perhaps for the reason that it is one on which it is difficult to lay down precise and definitive rules. This difficulty the author has not, perhaps, fully appreciated. Treating a public debt as in some sense a lien on the whole of the debtor state, he contends that, in case a state is annexed or dismembered, the annexed state, or the detached portion of the dismembered state, should be required to bear the burden of all, or of a proportionate share, as the case may be, of the prior debt. It is evident that this is a question the equities of which, whether with regard to the state or states concerned or to the creditors, must depend largely upon circumstances. In regard to purely municipal or local debts, which the author cites to support his contention, there does not seem to be any difficulty. They are not affected by the shifting of the national sovereignty; they are in their nature local obligations. But when we come to deal with national debts, which rest upon the public faith and can scarcely be treated as liens, various complicating questions arise.

Mr. Appleton refers to the case of Texas (which became a State of the American Union not in 1843, as the text inadvertently says, but in 1845) as a State which preserved and continued to be bound by its debt, though, as is pointed out, there were subsequently certain transactions, not explicitly affecting the principle involved, by which the commonwealth was relieved of the burden. The case of Texas, however, also serves to suggest the fact that the question whether an annexed State shall continue separately to be bound by its public debt must to a great extent depend upon the political effect of the annexation. When Texas became a State of the American Union, it preserved to the same extent as the other States of the Union its political identity, with power to contract debts and to levy and collect all taxes not forbidden by the Federal Constitution. If it had become a mere administrative department, or had been divided up into several administrative departments, of a centralized national government, a different disposition of its debt might have been required. Nor would such a disposition necessarily have been injurious to the rights of the creditors or to the interests of any of the parties concerned.

But while Mr. Appleton has not given so prominent a place as it may often be necessary to give to the political effect of a change of national sovereignty, growing out of the constitutions of different states, or to the element of circumstances as affecting the equities of particular cases, his essay forms an interesting contribution to his subject.

Nuove Lettere Inedite del Conte Camillo di Cavour. Con prefazione e note di Edmondo Mayor. Turin: Roux.

It is evident that the correspondence of only three European statesmen in our century is now recognized as sufficiently important to warrant its publication in full. These three are Napoleon, Bismarck, and Cavour. To Italy, Cavour's letters have a far greater value than Napoleon's have for France or Bismarck's for Germany, because they set forth certain political principles by which Italians can still govern themselves, if they will, whereas the principles of both Napoleon and Bismarck apply only to autocrats like themselves in their particular crises. Of Cavour's letters there have already been printed six volumes by Chiala and one volume each by Bianchi, Bert, and Nigra. Signor Mayor has recently added another volume, comprising more than five hundred letters, written between 1853-'58. Although this period is not so exciting as the years 1859-'61, in which the fruits of Cavour's genius ripened, it is still very important, and the present collection supplements the letters previously edited on such matters as the Crimean war and the Congress of Paris. It is especially rich in letters to Villamarina, who served during these years as Piedmontese ambassador in Paris, holding the most responsible diplomatic position of all at that time, because the ambassador was the medium through which Cavour was cunningly feeling his way to secure Napoleon III.'s succor for Italy.

For many readers, however, the letters referring to Mazzini's attempted capture of the city of Genoa, on the evening of June 30, 1857, will possess the greatest interest. Cavour, who believed that Mazzini abetted political assassination, finds no words too strong to express his abomination of him. "Infamous conspirator," "furious madman," "demon," "chief of a horde of ferocious and fanatical assassins," are some of the epithets which Cavour uses; but he does not underrate Mazzini's ability to concoct plots. He is angry at the inability of the Italian police to arrest the great conspirator, and sends to Paris for a detective who promises better, though Mazzini had passed through France ten times without letting the French police suspect his presence. One of the persons implicated in this Genoese outbreak was Miss Jessie White, referred to as "Miss * * *," who subsequently married Alberto Mario, Garibaldi's lieutenant. That the British Minister, Sir James Hudson, refused to interfere in her behalf illustrates the ascendency Cavour had over him; because, although Miss White was doubtless concerned in the plot, no legal proofs could be brought against her.

More than a word of commendation should be given to the excellent notes and indices with which Signor Mayor has supplied the work.

Madagascar of To-day. By the Rev. W. E. Cousins. F. H. Revell Co.

The present war in Madagascar has naturally called into existence a number of works, most of them in French, about the country. The little volume before us is of this sort, and it can be highly recommended to any one who wishes to get a few simple facts about the great African island, its nature and inhabitants, its history, and especially the story of the growth of Christianity within its borders. The author is a missionary of many years' standing, obviously familiar with his subject. He writes in a calm, sensible way, and in particular his judgment of political and religious conditions is surprisingly fair. The feeling between English Protestant and French Catholic missionaries is apt to be hostile enough, as has been seen in many instances. In Madagascar this has been markedly the case; hence one can well understand the intense disappointment of many religious people in England now that the land where her Protestant shepherds have been most successful is passing into the hands of France. When we opened Mr. Cousins's book, we expected a diatribe almost as a matter of course, and were agreeably disappointed to find that although he has regrets as well as natural fears for the future, he admits that the island would prosper more under foreign than under native rule, and states frankly that the Catholic missionaries have also done noble work for its inhabitants.

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The lay reader will probably think that some of the pages the author devotes to the growth of the Christian faith might have been profitably spared for a few more statistics, remarks about the climate, the character of the natives, etc., but we should remember that the conversion of the sovereign as well as of an important percentage of her subjects is almost unique in the annals of modern Christianity. It is also one great reason of the peculiar interest which the country and its people inspire. Of course 'Madagascar of To-day' gives us few details about this or any other topic, but it is completely successful in its purpose to set forth in brief the main facts as to the country and its people and history, and so enable the reader to form a sound opinion as to the present situation, and to read with intelligence the news that reaches us from month to month.

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Campbell, Gerald. The Joneses and the Asterisks: A Story in Monologue. London: John Lane; New York: Merriam Co. $1.25.
Dawe, W. C. Yellow and White. London: John Lane; Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Ellis, E. S. The Youth's Classical Dictionary. Woolfall Co. 50 cents.
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